The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 14, 1895.

The Week.

CONGRESSMAN SAYERS, chairman of the committee on appropriations, has prepared the usual comparative statement of the appropriations of the last Congress and of the two preceding ones, Mr. Henderson of Iowa making a similar presentation in behalf of the Republicans. According to Mr. Sayers, the totals are these:

Fifty-first Congress.....	$1,035,680,109
Fifty-second Congress..	1,027,104,547
Fifty-third Congress....	990,338,691

Mr. Henderson's figures agree with those of Mr. Sayers as to the Fifty-second and Fifty-third Congresses. As to the Fifty-first, he makes the amount $988,417,183. Thus, according to Mr. Henderson's showing, the billion-dollar Republican Congress was a little less extravagant than the billion-dollar Democratic one, but the difference is not sufficient to carry a stump orator very far. The principal item in all these tables is that of pensions, which were in round numbers:

Fifty-first Congress.....	$288,000,000.
Fifty-second Congress.....	335,000,000.
Fifty-third Congress.....	293,000,000.

Mr. Sayers shows that the last Congress authorized no new river-and-harbor works, although it was obliged to vote $20,000,000 to meet old contracts, and that while voting $23,000,000 for the new navy on old contracts, it authorized only $8,000,000 of additional work. In the way of new buildings, it authorized only $5,660,000, of which $4,000,000 was for one building at Chicago which was indispensable. The Fifty-first Congress authorized $8,000,000 for new buildings. Mr. Henderson, on the other hand, considers the diminution of appropriations by the last Congress both deceptive and cruel, having been due to a slackening of zeal in pension work. If this work had been pushed with the zeal displayed by Corporal Tanner and his successor in office, the amount called for would have been $20,000,000 greater than it was, and the appropriations would have been the largest of any Congress since the war.

Assistant-Secretary Curtis denies officially the statement published on Friday that the Treasury Department was dissatisfied with the gold deliveries of the bond syndicate under their contract for the supply of coin. It takes so much time to contradict lies in the newspapers, especially those relating to the sale of bonds, that it would be well for Congress to create a new office—that of third assistant secretary—to attend to that business exclusively as long as we have a public debt. He ought also to be put under the civil-service rules, and not be liable to removal with a change of Administration, because experience and alacrity in detecting and exposing fallacies affecting the national finances would be worth millions to the people every year. The Boston *Herald*, for example, says that the "gold payments by the present syndicate are made with much greater slowness in the present settlement than in either of the other adjustments of bond purchases." This is a fallacy. Although not exactly a lie, it has all the effect of one because nine readers out of ten will assume that they are too slow for the public good, and a majority will think that the syndicate are not living up to the terms of their contract. Both of these lurking suggestions are deceptive. Mr. Curtis contradicts both when he says that the amount of gold already deposited on the foreign account is in excess of the contract requirements, that, all told, the syndicate is ahead of its agreed deposits by some $9,000,000, and that the withdrawals of gold by the public since the contract was made have not been in excess of those which are usual at this time of the year. Consequently the fact, if it be a fact, that these gold payments are made more slowly than some former ones, is of no more consequence than the eclipse of the moon or the backwardness of the weather.

The serious risks which the syndicate taking the last Government loan had to face have been steadily decried by our light-hearted financiers of the press and by the lee-shore wreckers. No risk at all, they have affirmed. The loan was certain to go off like hot cakes. Anybody could get $30,000,000 of gold in London by whistling for it, and as for preventing gold exports, nothing could be easier for a person who really gave his mind to it. But the organs of the investing world of London thought differently. The *Investors' Review* broke into ribald laughter when it read of the President's simple-minded belief that the syndicate could control foreign exchange as it had contracted to. Did these American "babes in political economy" imagine that "a compact of this or of any kind with financiers can circumvent the operation of a natural law"? The *Review* was going to have the gold back again as fast as it was shipped here. But two months have elapsed, and not a dollar has been exported. The syndicate has done, so far, exactly what it agreed to. It has not violated any natural law of trade, because it is a natural law of trade that you can prevent gold exports if you are willing to sell bills at a loss. This is what the syndicate appears to have done. On the general question of the loan the *Review* said:

"In the circumstances the British public ought not to relieve the finance houses of a dollar's worth of the 'coin' $62,317,500-loan sold to pay the buyer-syndicate about 3¾ per cent. on the 8th February, and if our insurance companies take it they will rue the day. A United States loan issued abroad under the conditions now dominant there—and to all appearance likely to continue dominant—would be dear at 5 per cent."

Comptroller Eckels contributes to the March number of the *Forum* a timely article on the currency question, the main feature of which is that the Government's legal-tender notes must be retired and cancelled, and that this reform must precede every other. He considers it an encouraging sign of the times that so many men in public and private life are willing to take a positive stand on this question and to work for the promotion of sound principles of finance. We consider it an encouraging sign that the comptroller of the currency himself is fighting for the retirement of the greenbacks. Probably all of his predecessors in office have been of the same mind as Mr. Eckels, but the circumstances under which they administered their offices having been those of an abundant gold reserve, and hence of comparative tranquillity, the time was not favorable for a crusade against the greenbacks. It is favorable now, and Mr. Eckels sets a good example by improving the opportunity.

Lodge's article in the *Forum* on "Our Blundering Foreign Policy" has not the advantage of his pretty map in red and blue, with which he awed the Senate week before last, but it equally exemplifies kindergarten methods of instruction. Children, and, we had thought, children only, need to be told with so much solemnity that bad men are not nice, and that it is a shame not to tell the truth, respect one's parents, and love one's country. This is the burden of his remarks, which will certainly encourage all true patriots by showing them that we have at least one Senator who boldly says he is in favor of everything that will make our country good, great, and glorious, and is unalterably opposed to every public measure that is, directly or indirectly, pernicious and unpatriotic. Lodge plaintively objects to having "Americanism" like his put in "quotation-marks and treated as an opprobrious and dishonoring epithet." But what are printers to do? Must they violate, at Lodge's demand, not only every international law, but every rule of punctuation as well? It is the ordinary rule to put quotation-marks about any word used in an odd, affected, or ludicrous or mysterious fashion; and as long as Lodge's "Americanism" continues to be used in that way, it will get the "double-quotes" every time in all well-regulated printing-offices. It is all very well for him to go to war with Great Britain, but is he ready to take

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

the responsibility of quarrelling with a proof-reader?

Over another matter connected with the exigencies of printing does the Senator stumble. We refer to the necessity of getting a magazine article in type long before it is finally published. This exposes the writer to the peril of asserting things which he himself and the public find out, too late, to be the things that are not. Thus Lodge affirms in his article that "we have done nothing to check the continued aggressions of the British upon the territory of Venezuela"; but almost on the very day the statement appears it is given the lie by the publication of the Government's annual volume on foreign relations, which shows that the Venezuela boundary dispute has "had Mr. Bayard's unceasing attention," that "his persistence has modified Great Britain's attitude considerably, and that the long controversy is in a fair way to reach a termination satisfactory to all concerned." One thing is certain, if the controversy is settled, it will be passed by hereafter in as stern silence by Lodge as the Mosquito protectorate is, as the successful Chinese and Japanese treaties are. If any miserable un-American critic says this is distinctly unfair and a blunder in a great historical writer, the triumphant answer is ready for him; How can you better expose "Our Blundering Foreign Policy" than by making big blunders yourself?

Senator Morgan, in the intervals of promoting international hatred and bloody wars, is a tender-hearted philanthropist. In an address delivered last January before that ridiculous pro-slavery survival, the American Colonization Society, he expanded his noble breast in sympathy for the oppressed of all the earth. He had his eye particularly on the Armenians, whom he would have emigrate to this country *en masse*. To make room for them he would send all the negroes to Africa, much as he would hate to "give them up," sorely as his "heart would be lacerated if the negroes should go back home." But "there must be partings in the world," and Senator Morgan would arrange the partings and arrivings as follows:

> "I would march a grand procession across the Atlantic Ocean, bearing banners and torches, and singing the songs of rejoicing, composed of five millions of Armenians, and as they come from one shore I would have another procession going from our shores, composed of five millions of negroes returning to their homes. If any man can produce, even out of the most fervid imagination, a picture brighter or happier than that, which stands within the very touch of reality, let him rise and do it. Oh, how proud I would be to contribute my aid in forming that grand procession! How would the nations then again distribute themselves: the Africans bearing our civilization into the Dark Continent, and the Armenians bringing the light of Christianity as it first shone upon the altars, where it can never be extinguished, into this beautiful Christian republic of ours."

We hesitate to set our fervid imagination against the Alabama Senator's, yet we can easily conceive a brighter and happier picture than his. It would be a procession, which he could powerfully contribute his aid in forming, of all the blatherskites and burlesque statesmen out of the Senate, with or without banners and torches, and a procession into it, to take their places, of an equal number of honest and serious legislators. We should be willing to put it to popular vote tomorrow (the negro and Armenian vote barred), which spectacle would awaken the greatest general rejoicing.

Mr. Scott, the corporation counsel, did a public service last week when he declared, in the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, that the low tax-rate of last year about which Gilroy made such a clatter was fictitious, or, in plain language, a fraud. Mr. Fitch, the Tammany comptroller, was obliged to admit that this was the fact, and the president of the Department of Taxes and Assessments, Mr. Barker, was obliged to acquiesce in the same view. It is only a few weeks since Gilroy sailed away to Europe, giving tongue to the last to the old Tammany lie about the low tax-rate, the wealth of New York, and the blessings of Tammany rule. Everybody connected with the Gilroy administration knew it was a lie. As matters stand to-day, nobody knows what the income from the tax levy will be, but of one thing there is no doubt, it will be far from adequate to meet the expenses of the government. That is a Tammany legacy to the city which the taxpayers will have to pay. Next year's tax-rate will have to be raised to meet the deficit, and when it is announced, there will be a great Tammany uproar about the cost of reform rule. It is a great pity that the author of the tax-rate fraud was allowed to get out of the country without a thorough investigation. Enough has been revealed about him already to show that as the one Tammany statesman with a "business record" he was the most blatant deceiver of the whole gang, and if his record in the Public Works Department, both while at the head of it personally and while he had "Mike" Daly at its head as his dummy, could be gone into, we should doubtless discover why it is that he is able to be travelling in Europe for an indefinite period.

A most commendable plan for useful public work for the community between elections has been formulated by Good Government Club O. It is based on the belief that municipal reformers should take a kindergarten lesson in municipal duties before venturing to instruct others, that they should acquire a rudimentary knowledge of the portion of the city in which they live before attempting more ambitious duties embracing the whole community, and that this knowledge should embrace all city departments, beginning first with the housekeeping or street-cleaning of the home district. The first step of the plan is to divide the Fourteenth Assembly District, in which the club is situated, into sections, election districts, and blocks, placing each block in charge of a person living on it, and requiring him or her (for women are to share in the work) to report upwards through assistant inspectors, inspectors, and section leaders to the chairman of the executive committee, who shall make the final report to the head of the Street-Cleaning Bureau or other city department responsible for the work under consideration. It would be difficult to conceive of a more useful field of activity for a Good Government club than this. The idea is to have the work so divided up among many, and so thoroughly systematized, that quick reports can be made and the results placed in the hands of the municipal authorities without delay. Club O intends also to send out circulars to the residents, relative to city ordinances, and instructions for the children of the district to report to their parents concerning rubbish, etc., in the streets, and thus educate the youth of the district in habits of cleanliness. The street-cleaning commissioner will be only too glad for coöperation of this kind, for not only will it help him in educating the public in regard to papers and rubbish in the streets, but it will enable him to put his finger more quickly upon delinquent subordinates in his department who are not properly attending to their duties.

The debate in the English Parliament on Thursday on the non-payment of the Bering Sea claims was temperate and wholly devoid of accusation or reproach, yet it was of a kind not calculated to increase our national pride. Not only was no provision made by Congress for paying the claims, but none was made for carrying out the alternative proposition to have them arbitrated according to the decision of the Paris tribunal. When the House, under the lead of Hitt and Cannon of Illinois, voted against paying the lump sum of $425,000, Secretary Gresham sent to the Senate committee on appropriations, where the deficiency bill was pending, an estimate for $50,000 to pay the expenses of the court of arbitration, which was the next step required by the tribunal. Such an amendment was reported by the committee. When it came up in regular order, Senator Sherman moved to substitute the sum of $425,000 in order to have done with the whole business, as he believed that it would be cheaper in the end, and that it would save the principle of arbitration from a damaging blow. Mr. Sherman's motion was supported by Senator Platt in a moderate tone and by Senator Hoar vigorously. At this critical moment the Jingo Senator from Alabama (Morgan) arrived on the scene. He had been absent when Senator Cockrell reported the $50,000 amendment

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

for the Court of Arbitration. Morgan at once began speaking against both propositions and in favor of an entirely new plan, that of a congressional investigation of the claims. In the course of this speech he reached the limits of Jingoism by accusing Great Britain of an intention to pay the money out of her own pocket in order to establish a moral claim on us for the money at a future time. When Senator Cockrell saw that this dreadful man was going to talk the session out, he cut the matter short by withdrawing his own amendment, which carried with it the Sherman amendment. So we stand before the world with a distinct blot on our 'scutcheon. We have not only refused to pay the sum which our own Government judged to be reasonable, but we have refused, or at all events failed, to take the next step, which we agreed to take. We promised in the most solemn manner to do one of two things, and we have not kept the promise. This may be high fun for the Jingoists; but Americans who visit Europe this year will perhaps not carry their heads quite so high as they usually do.

The latest champion of bimetallism in the English Parliament, Mr. Everett, amused the House of Commons much the other day by enforcing and illustrating the mystic character of silver and the divine purpose in lodging it in the earth. This sacrosanct nature of silver has been abundantly described already. In 1873, when the silver agitation first began, it was asked with much force, Why did the Hebrew patriarchs use silver in their daily transactions? Why, for instance, did Abraham pay for the cave of Macpelah in that metal if its use was not divinely ordained? And it has been more recently pointed out that, though the increasing spread of scepticism in the guise of science, falsely so called, has made its rôle in Hebrew history seem of less account, nevertheless a decent regard for ancient traditions and sacred beliefs requires that it should still be treated with a certain reverence. Mr. Everett undertook to show, and showed, that it is not necessary to rest the claims of silver to this reverence on the Bible or the Talmud; that its place in the currency of the world is part of the order of nature; and that in trying to make it a subsidiary coin, or throw it out of circulation, we are fighting against the forces of the universe. For says he:

> "The two metals [gold and silver] had been linked together in the speech of man and had been devoted to the same common use. There was a remarkable duality in nature. Red wheat and white wheat was used for a common purpose. The Creator had given us two eyes for the common purpose of sight and two ears for the common purpose of hearing, and we were created of two sexes [laughter], which only fulfilled the highest functions of their being by union in marriage."

He might have pursued the analogy much further had it been necessary. Two feet, two hands, the common use of horses in pairs, two oxen to the plough and the wagon, twins among children, two paddles to steamers, brown and loaf sugar, domestic and imported clothing, bicameral government, are all proofs that duality runs through nature with an unceasing purpose.

The Spanish Government was interpellated in the Cortes on Thursday respecting the attitude of the United States towards the Cuban revolt. In reply it was stated that our Government was faithfully discharging its duties as a neutral, and was, in fact, taking extraordinary precautions to prevent the organization of expeditions in this country to assist the Cuban revolutionists. All this is as it should be, yet it is no wonder that some Spaniards are ready to question our good faith. Senator Call of Florida introduces a resolution every year to annex Cuba. He does it, it is true, with a wink to the Key West cigar-makers, but the wink is not visible across the Atlantic. Senator Lodge chooses this happy occasion to say that Cuba will soon "become a necessity to us." This is the language of a highwayman, to whom the traveller's purse is equally a "necessity," and is to be had by means as honorable as those Lodge seems to have in mind. But the Spaniards do not understand that the grave Massachusetts Senator thus advocates international piracy with his tongue in his cheek, despising the silly voters whom he thinks to fool by his braggart words. With all the raging of the reckless Jingo press and our valiant Senators, it is reassuring to know that the Administration has no sympathy with filibusters or buccaneers. Whether the same could have been said of the Administration four years ago is highly doubtful.

A new argument for French colonial enterprises has been found. They are to fill up the rapidly decimating ranks of French servants. "Will you tell me," said a minister a few days ago to one of the most renowned of France's African soldiers—"will you tell me what good your Sudan is ever going to do us?" "Certainly," replied the general; "it is going to furnish you, twenty years from now, with the only people who will deign to black your boots or cook your meals." It is no doubt true that the servant question is getting to be almost as burning in the land of a fixed social hierarchy and traditionally well-trained domestics as in happy-go-lucky America. We have seen letters of great Spanish ladies complaining of the sudden insolence of their ancient retainers; the wail of the poorly served is audible in France, and what sort of democratic bees are buzzing in the heads of English servants may be inferred from such realistic pictures of them as 'Esther Waters.' The new French idea of meeting the difficulty seems likely to be the next resort of distressed civilization. It was anticipated some years ago by a comic paper which pictured the coming servant in the person of the Esquimaux maiden who would not object to sleeping in a cold room, the Zulu damsel who wouldn't mind a heated kitchen, and the other *Calibans* and *Audreys* of the ends of the earth who would fardels bear and groan and sweat in our behalf. But it is clear that this remedy could be only temporary, as the passion for equality and fraternity would surely, in time, reach and pervert the blackamoors as it had their predecessors before them. Whichever way we look at it, the future for civilized man looms dark and servantless. Sir William Harcourt told lately of a duke whose affairs were in desperate shape and who got a man to look into them. It was found that he had three high-salaried French chefs, and it was suggested that he might get on with two. But the duke rebelled, and plaintively said to his creditors: "Surely, you will let me have a biscuit when I want it." As things are going we shall all have to be content with a biscuit or a crust before long, as the trouble is swiftly spreading in all ranks of society, from a dustman down to a duke, as they now say in Parliament.

The reply of Prince Hohenlohe to the Reichstag on the subject of a new silver conference was made in writing and was very carefully worded. "Without prejudicing," he said, "our imperial currency, one must confess that the differences in value between gold and silver continue to react upon our commercial life. Following out the train of thought which led to the convocation of the Silver Inquiry Commission, I am ready to consider, in conjunction with the federal governments, whether we cannot enter into a friendly interchange of opinions as to common remedial measures with the other states which are chiefly interested in maintaining the value of silver." This, as the London *Economist* points out, is in no sense different from the position taken by Germany in the Brussels conference, for, although she declined to take part in the discussion or the voting in the conference, she might have taken part in both, as England did, without changing her determination to adhere to the gold standard. The situation in Germany is this: The landowners are in despair because prices of cereals are low. They think that a change in the standard of value might help them. The manufacturing and commercial classes, whose products fell in price some years ago, are now well pleased to see the prices of agricultural products come down. They are opposed to any tinkering with the currency. The Government is not obliged to do what the Reichstag wants any more than President Cleveland is obliged to do what the House of Representatives wants. It should be observed that President Cleveland is not authorized, in any event, to take part in a new conference for "a friendly interchange of opinions," but only for one to take positive steps for international bimetallism.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

PARTY DISCIPLINE AND APPROPRIATIONS.

THE customary wrangling and recriminations over the appropriations of Congress are now well under way. In the press and in the supplementary issue of the *Congressional Record*, one set of party leaders assert that they have been wise and economical, while also patriotic and generous, in voting money for Government purposes, while another set assert that the appropriations were never so extravagant and wasteful, and at the same time so poorly adapted to make the country great and majestic at home and abroad. Chairman Sayers affirms, and adduces the figures to prove, that the appropriations of the Fifty-third Congress were below those of the Fifty-second by $36,000,000, and below those of the Fifty-first by $45,000,000. On the next page Mr. Henderson, for the minority, affirms, and adduces *his* figures to prove, that the appropriations of the Fifty-third Congress were greater than those of the Fifty-first by $31,000,000.

There is nothing new about this, and we refer to it only because it exemplifies once more the state of hopeless chaos in which American public finance continues to flounder. Nothing like it is to be seen in any other civilized country. One set of men are put to the work of levying taxes to raise the public revenue, and another set, separate and irresponsible, vote it away. The first set are not allowed to lay revenue taxes pure and simple, and if they were, would not know how much money to provide, as there is no way of guessing in advance how much money will be spent. The set nominally in control of the spending—that is to say, the chairmen and the majority members of committees—are not really in control, as they are subject to constant raiding and overruling by the mob of log-rollers and grabbers into which the House always resolves itself in the last two weeks of its life.

This was especially conspicuous in the last hours of the Fifty-third Congress. Chairman Sayers and his faithful lieutenant, Mr. Dockery, protested and appealed, stormed and threatened, but all in vain. Party lines went to pieces, and the responsible leaders of the House were ridden down again and again as by a charge of infuriated bisons. Notably was this the case with the sugar-bounty vote. Mr. Dockery put the case as strongly as possible. The Government revenues were short $110,000,000. To sustain the gold reserve $150,000,000 of bonds had been issued. Yet in this fiscal situation the House was coolly asked, in the closing hours of the last day of the session, to vote away a gratuity of $5,238,000. The strongest leaders on both sides were against it. Mr. Reed was against it, and Mr. Cannon and Mr. Payne—that is, the next Speaker, the next chairman of the appropriations committee, and possibly the next chairman of the ways and means committee. But the gratuity was voted in a mad rush, the most telling, and at the same time the most shameless, argument in favor of it being made by Mr. Beckner of Kentucky, who said:

"I know, Mr. Speaker, how prone the public men of the South have been to construct out of material claimed to be found in the Constitution breakwaters against the gulf stream of governmental expenditure, so that its warmth and vivifying powers may be confined to the North, but in this case all sections are interested; and, while it is on my mind, let me warn my Southern friends that they can overdo what in a remarkable degree would be highly commendable. The younger generation are looking with eager eyes and yearning hearts on the industrial and commercial movements which have made the East, the Middle States, and even the new West so prosperous and rich. They are impatient over the quibbling about constitutional phantoms which obstructs the development of the dear South land for which nature has done so much."

It should be noted, too, that the evil is a growing one, and that the old barriers in the House and Senate rules against the warm and vivifying gulf stream of governmental expenditure have been deliberately broken down. When the chairman of the appropriations committee had complete charge of all appropriation bills, he was able to make a better fight against the spendthrifts. Mr. Randall was for years, as such chairman, the terror of jobbers and schemers, and used, in fact, to be able to keep something like unity and reason in the system. He could say with a good measure of truth, as he did at the close of the Forty-sixth Congress, that "every description of undue appropriation of public money has been prevented." But the jobbers and the schemers soon put an end to that. In 1883 the river and harbor committee was given a free hand for its log-rolling raids upon the Treasury, and, pleased with the results of that move, the yearning and eager seekers after appropriations succeeded, in 1886, in taking away from the appropriations committee the army bill, the naval bill, the consular and diplomatic bill, the post-office and Indian bills. Is it surprising that the expenses began to leap up? A similar throwing down of the bars is now proposed in the Senate. Mr. Gorman used his power as member of the committee on appropriations to strike out some $3,000,000 from the wasteful naval bill, and instantly a Senator gave notice that he should move to have the appropriation bills broken up in the Senate as they have been in the House. Divide and conquer, is the motto of the raiders.

To state the perils of the system at their worst, it must be added that the old motives for public economy are disappearing or have disappeared. Said Mr. Dockery, when protesting against one particular largess:

"If I read aright the public sentiment of the country as it is reflected in the daily press, if not on this floor, the people of the United States will call to a severe account their representatives who, in times of pressing distress, with thousands of laborers out of employment, with widespread industrial paralysis, approve the policy proposed by this bill."

But he was very much mistaken. There is no evidence of a widespread desire for frugality in government. The hard times are only a new argument for lavish appropriations—the more needy people there are, the greater the call for warm and vivifying sums out of the public treasury. The Governors of half-a-dozen States have had to send special messages to their Legislatures this year warning them against the alarming extravagance of the appropriation bills. Provided a fair share of the swollen appropriations reach the eager and yearning in his district, a Representative will get but the warmer welcome from his constituents if he goes home with a consistent record for approving public extravagance.

But while this is so, the urgency of devising some means to prevent legislatures and Congress from bankrupting the country is great, on partisan as well as patriotic grounds. No party can safely see its leaders in the House trampled upon by a mob of needy and unprincipled jobbers. The numbers of the latter are all the while increasing, as are also their audacity, their skill in conspiracy and intrigue. As a measure of self-preservation, then, party leaders must find some way of keeping them under. A thorough-going remedy it is idle to hope for. To ask irrational men to adopt a rational system is to cry in the wilderness. Other civilized governments themselves take exclusive charge of revenue and appropriation bills. To suggest that at Washington would have no more effect than an east wind blowing over the capitol. Equally futile is it to talk of amending the Constitution so as to allow the President to veto separate items in an appropriation bill. That method works admirably in many State constitutions, but that would be an argument against it with the Washington politicians.

A tentative and practicable remedy might be found in extending party discipline to appropriation bills. They might be settled in a party caucus, and subordination required to the responsible chairmen as a test of party loyalty. This is done now in the matter of electing a doorkeeper or a chaplain, or of passing some partisan bill; why should it not be done in the matter of conducting the public finance? A precedent in point could be found in the government of towns in some States, where the sums to be voted for town expenses are settled in party primaries and then submitted to the voters. The appeal should be made to party responsibility and party discipline; that is often practicable where an appeal to reason and experience is not. In some way American parties must take in hand our headless finance. Their own existence as well as that of the Government is threatened by the increasing throngs of lobbyists and log-rollers who sit in Congress in the guise of legislators, and

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

whose swinish rush for public money is becoming more disgusting and dangerous year by year.

A SILVER PARTY.

An address has been signed and published calling for the formation of a new party, whose principal aim shall be the "immediate return to the constitutional standard of gold and silver, by the restoration by this Government, independently of any foreign power, of the unrestricted coinage of both silver and gold into standard money, at a ratio of 16 to 1, and upon terms of exact equality; the silver coin to be a full legal tender, equally with gold, for all debts and dues, public and private." The signers declare emphatically that there is no dependence to be placed on either of the old parties. On this point they say:

> "There is no hope whatever that the Republican party, as a party, will change its policy, give up the gold standard, and restore the bimetallic standard. The Republican party is committed by its leaders, by its record, and by the press behind it, to the gold standard, supported by gold bonds, and to the retirement of the greenbacks and the surrender of the issue and control of paper currency to the banks."
>
> "No less persistent and effective is the control of the money power over the organization of the Democratic party. While undoubtedly a large majority of the members of that party are opposed to the gold standard, they have been powerless to control the party organization against it, and much less to secure through it the restoration of the bimetallic standard."

Another address has been issued simultaneously, signed by R. P. Bland, W. J. Bryan, and twenty-nine other Democratic members of the last Congress who have failed of reëlection, urging all Democrats to make the money question the paramount issue, and to endeavor to place the Democratic party on record in favor of the "immediate restoration of the free and unlimited coinage of gold and silver at the present legal ratio of 16 to 1, without waiting for the aid or consent of any other nation, as it existed prior to 1873; such coin to be a full legal tender for all debts, public and private."

This is a political programme that we have ardently desired to see carried into effect. It is now nearly twenty years that the country has been harassed, and political parties wrenched, and the national resources wasted by the silver question. This question has been only a side issue, but has nevertheless embarrassed both parties from the beginning. It has embarrassed the Democrats more than the Republicans, and is likely to embarrass them in still greater degree. A considerable number of leading Democrats are now in favor of an outright declaration for free coinage in order to head off the new party. The Republican silverites are not of this desperate kind. Of the Colorado and Montana members it may be said that their bark is worse than their bite. They will threaten and bluster up to a certain point and then they will surrender. Such Senators as Teller and Wolcott have no idea of disrupting the party. In this particular they are squarely at issue with the Nevada Senators, who are already members of the new party. The proposition for another monetary conference came from Wolcott and was stoutly opposed by Stewart, who described it as a new attempt to dodge the issue and to stave off a decisive battle in this country for free coinage. We think that Stewart's diagnosis is the true one, and that it applies to both parties alike. The eagerness with which the Democrats welcomed it was quite suspicious.

Now the interesting question is whether Bland, Bryan, and the other tailless foxes can make a sufficient break into the Democratic party to make it an out-and-out silver party, or whether they will merely succeed in attaching themselves to the Populists. In the latter event they will be stigmatized as deserters and their career will be short. Mr. Bland's maximum achievement will be to deliver the State of Missouri over to the Republicans, and not only to fail of the senatorship himself, but to defeat Vest also. This result is as likely to take place in 1896 as any really doubtful thing in the range of politics. Mr. Bryan has accomplished the same thing in Nebraska, but it was an easier thing to do, because that State is naturally Republican.

One way or the other—either by putting a new party in the field or by putting the Democratic party on a free-coinage platform—it is to be hoped that the issue may be squarely made in the next Presidential election. The question must be fought out. The old dodges and devices of buying a little silver to stop the mouths of a few people will no longer serve the purpose. It is time that the people should say whether they want a fifty-cent dollar or not. It is time that they should say it in plain words, and not by obscure phrases in national platforms and by nominating men whose positions are known just as Mr. Cleveland's was known in 1892, and as Mr. Bland's is known now. An attempt will be made by the "boomers" of McKinley to push the tariff to the front, but it will hardly succeed, because the tariff is not the uppermost thought of the people, and because the position of McKinley on the silver question would expose the party to losses in the Eastern States. Everything points now to the kind of battle which the silverites have issued the challenge for. Let us hope that it may not be postponed beyond 1896.

JOURNALISTIC DEMENTIA.

The effect of wealth on the journalistic mind is a subject of considerable pathological interest which we commend to the attention of the Academy of Medicine. The condition of excitement into which the press has been thrown during the past fortnight by the marriage of one rich woman and the divorce of another, in fact seems hardly distinguishable from a species of dementia. Unlimited space is given up to both events, and the illustrations include portraits of the entire families of the plaintiff and defendant in the divorce suit, and of the various houses which they inhabit. The particulars of the divorce suit, too, are discussed in one paper as the "biggest divorce suit ever known in the world," and pointed out as particularly interesting to the brakemen on a railroad from which one of the parties draws his income. It must be remembered, too, that this stuff is greedily read by all classes; and if we were to infer the character of the population from its consumption, using the standards supplied by ordinary life and by other kinds of literature, we should say that the United States was inhabited exclusively by servant-girls, 'longshoremen, and hackmen. Upon the effect of such compositions on the youth who are pouring out every year from the common schools we need not comment. This is probably not yet fully visible, but it will become more and more so as the years roll by.

It is not their indecency that is their worst fault; it is their unutterable silliness and vulgarity. One who knew no better might fairly imagine that a lot of vicious boys had got hold of the press, and were amusing themselves with bringing civilization itself into ridicule. The most marked feature of these compositions, in fact, is their puerility. Nobody who was not accustomed to them would suppose they were the work of grown-up people. Childish hilarity, irreverence, and, we may add, childish inventiveness, are their leading characteristics.

What is most curious about this press problem is, however, that it is apparently insoluble. The silly youths who run this great machine—only a handful, after all, in number, and objects of more or less ridicule when they show themselves *in propriâ personâ*—seem to hold this great nation in a kind of slavery. The press is, to the vast mass of the town population, at all events, an object of dread and dislike. We have heard denunciations of its mendacity and inquisitiveness from people of all classes and conditions. But no mission set before the American people seems more hopeless than escape from it. The exclusion of the British from this continent, the provision of a sound currency and good banking system, the purification of the suffrage, and the abolition of the spoils system, all seem easy and practicable compared with the reform of the press. Clergymen preach about it, magazine writers write about it, and it is a common topic of conversation at nearly every social gathering in the land. There is hardly any one, rich or poor, who has not suffered from "the newspapers," and especially those who have passed through some notorious sorrow or misfortune. Travelling Americans hang their heads for shame when they see an American newspaper in a foreign reading-room. They hang them still lower when it is thrust into their hands on the wharf when they return to their native land.

But nobody seems able to suggest any

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

remedy, and, what is worse, the grumblers over the wicked journals are often their most diligent readers. One too often finds that the bitterest denouncers of the bad newspapers are familiar with everything they contain every day, repeat their gossip, enjoy their "digs," and especially the bits of blackguardism with which they annoy decent people. Here is the root of the evil. There is no surer reflex of the popular taste than journalism. It may be asserted that every country has the kind of newspapers it calls for. It is through this cranny that the proprietors of blackguard newspapers effect their escape. They say they furnish only what the community calls for, and show their "sales" and their fortunes in proof of the statement. Of course there is always a certain action and reaction going on between the public and the press. The press in some degree creates the tastes which it gratifies, and the journalist's plea that he only publishes what he knows he can sell, might be set up by the vender of obscene literature. But the main fact remains that the public gets the kind of press it wants, and which it could kill or discourage if it chose.

For the press there are certain excuses which, while they do not solve the problem, are worth consideration. Fewer and fewer able young men go into it as a calling, owing to the absence of all prizes in it and the insecurity of tenure. It is recruited largely by men who shrink from the early drudgery of the regular professions, or desire to step rapidly into a salaried place, or enjoy the variety and excitement of a journalistic life, or the power of secretly bombarding or annoying their seniors. Most of these men begin in the reporters' room, which, as generally managed, is the grave of seriousness and truthfulness and high ambition. Moreover, the proprietors, in catering for a salacious and frivolous public, as they consider it, do not encourage young men who are burdened with thoughtfulness or attainments. They want the livelier, more unscrupulous and imaginative kind who "write up" the divorce cases and pursue the rich into their bedrooms. Yet it is from the ranks of these youngsters that the editorial places are filled, and by the time the young journalist reaches his place he is apt, in good truth, to look on the world as a stage, and the men and women on it as bad actors, and humanity itself, with all its hopes and fears, as simple "copy." It will thus be seen that the press problem is mainly an economical problem. No other calling would be better off which offered no more prizes or security, and in which personality was so completely suppressed, and tyros enjoyed power in no way dependent on their experience or capacity.

THE PROGRAMME OF THE UNIONISTS.

THE combination of Tories and seceding Liberals in England, commonly known as the Conservative party, shows a disposition to change its name. Many of its members now habitually speak of themselves as Unionists rather than as Conservatives, and it must be admitted that the latter title has ceased to be altogether appropriate. It is true that this party may claim such conservatism as is implied in the maintenance of the House of Lords, the Established Church, and the present terms of union with Ireland; but the welfare of society consists of weightier matters than these. Concerning these weightier matters there are now decisive indications that the Unionists are about to offer to the country a policy so far removed from conservatism as to make it obviously expedient and becoming to drop the name.

This is manifest from the recent utterances of Mr. Balfour in commendation of Mr. Chamberlain's scheme of social reform. It is even more positively established by the declarations of the Duke of Devonshire, a statesman hitherto distinguished for moderation. Mr. Campbell-Bannerman, he said, had objected to the new Unionist policy of social legislation that no one could tell that the Unionists were all agreed. "We are all agreed," said the Duke. "There is not one of the great national interests at the present moment in the condition in which we could wish it to be. Agriculture, after all, our greatest national industry, has never been in such a condition of depression, and manufactures and industrial interests are rapidly sinking into the same condition. The mining and manufacturing interests of this country are gradually sinking. . . . We ask Parliament to address itself to the task of considering measures for the improvement of the condition of the people—measures which need not necessarily injure a single man, rich or poor, but which we hope may and will produce some improvement in the condition of the poorest and most suffering of our fellows."

He must indeed be hard-hearted who would refuse to benefit his fellow-creatures in this inexpensive manner; but the practical question, how this can be done, at once suggests itself. The Unionists, it seems, have now agreed upon their answer to this question. There are three principal measures by which they propose that Parliament shall improve the condition of the poor. The first of these is a system of old-age pensions, the Government furnishing money to encourage workmen to accumulate their savings. The second measure is to secure to workmen as a matter of right "that in all cases in which they suffer from accidents or injuries received in the course of their employment, they themselves and their families shall be fairly provided for." This provision is to extend to injuries due to a man's own fault. And the third measure provides that Government shall advance money to workmen to enable them to purchase dwellings.

As to the second of these measures, as we understand Mr. Chamberlain's explanation of it, employers are to be required to provide for workmen who are injured in their employment. In view of the sinking state of all English industries, as described by the Duke of Devonshire, it is incredible that employers can provide for this increased expense out of their profits. To say that these industries are sinking is but another way of saying that normal profits can no longer be obtained in them. If this is true, the additional expense to which employers are to be subjected can be met only by a corresponding reduction of wages. The measure would therefore be properly described as one for compelling workmen to insure themselves against accident. It would be interesting to observe the reception of such a programme as this by the English workman, but it is improbable that the matter will be presented to him in this way. He will be assured, more or less openly, that the rich are to be made to pay for his insurance, and that they ought to do so. While there is nothing more laudable than the prudence and regard for others displayed by the man who sacrifices a portion of his enjoyments in order that he may insure against casualty, no civic virtue is promoted by compulsory almsgiving. It curses both him who gives and him who takes. If the scheme contemplates insurance by Government, it will give rise to as much fraud as our pension laws. Those who are familiar with the business of insurance will testify that the greatest vigilance is necessary in order to prevent the companies from being ruined by fraudulent claims on the part of the assured. Against such claims no government can be defended with any degree of success. Shocking as it seems, it appears to be true that large numbers of people are willing to mutilate themselves for a pecuniary consideration.

The system of governmental insurance against injuries is also open to the criticism which applies to the other two measures. If Government is to pension old people and to lend money on real estate, it can procure the means to do so only by increasing taxes. If these taxes are paid by those who get pensions, it is evident that they are compelled to sacrifice a part of their wages for this purpose, as well as an additional part to cover the waste and expense of the tax-gatherers and disbursers. As it is contended that workmen are unable to save sufficient provision for old age out of their wages, it is evident that the advocates of this scheme really contemplate getting these taxes out of the pockets of those who are not to receive its benefits. In a word, pensions are either to be paid for by those who get them, in which case the scheme is simply one of compulsory insurance, or, since this supposition is excluded by the assumption that workmen are not able to save for this purpose, they are to be paid for by the rich. It can hardly be regarded as self-evident that such measures "need not necessarily injure a single man, rich or poor." They have a potentiality of mis-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

chief far beyond what can be here indicated.

In our judgment the Unionist programme would be greatly improved if it were reduced to one single measure. Let Parliament simply pay to every workman a daily or weekly stipend amounting to one-third or one-half of his wages. This would enable workmen to provide pensions, accident insurance, and dwellings for themselves, and such provision might be made compulsory. Moreover, as the Unionists argue, this would have no tendency to discourage providence and industry, since they defend their own measures on the ground that they are meant to "help" men to save; the theory being that public almsgiving can do no harm to those who are able to earn something for themselves, provided, of course, the gift is not called alms. We are very well aware that this experiment was formerly tried in England. All industries, that of agriculture especially, were then "rapidly sinking," and it was decided that the insufficient wages of the poor should be supplemented by allowances out of the rates. It is true that experience proved that this measure had the effect of reducing the rate of wages by the amount of the allowance, so that the workman received no higher wages than before; and if we were to be guided by experience, we could not escape the conclusion that the measures now proposed will have the same result. But modern legislators appear to have little interest in the lessons of experience, and even in England, the home of conservatism, the conservative spirit is, for the present at least, overborne. We cannot but regard it as ominous that this country, which maintained and gave to the world the great principle of resistance to governmental encroachment upon the liberties of the subject, should be threatened with socialistic oppression. As to the Unionists, it is in the highest degree discreditable to them that they should be willing to seek power by surrendering the defences of society to the Radicals.

TOWN GOVERNMENT IN MAINE.

BRUNSWICK, March 6, 1895.

THE best examples of the old form of town government in New England are naturally to be found in those communities which, in virtue of their small population and remote situation, stand somewhat aside from the great industrial and social movements of the time. It is amid such surroundings that the traditions of the elders are most faithfully preserved; and it is this type of community which has most often been described. There is, however, a type of town government different from this, to which much less attention has been given, yet which has in some respects a greater interest for students of political institutions. It is represented by those towns which, with population and wealth sufficient, according to the usage of the State in which they are situated, to entitle them to incorporation as cities, still keep to the old form of government in many of its essential details, and with no manifest desire to exchange it for another. Though in important respects primitive social conditions have given way to the demand for modern necessities and conveniences, the modifying influence of increasing numbers and diversified interests has as a whole been quietly and successfully resisted. Such a town is on the one hand far removed, in most of its characteristics, from the simple country community; on the other hand, it is not yet overgrown, and the town meeting, the governing body, has not yet been broken down by the presence of a body of voters too large for orderly and concerted action.

Such a town is Brunswick, Maine. First settled in 1628, and incorporated as a town in 1738, it has for the past fifteen years enjoyed the distinction of being the most populous town in the State. Like most of the seacoast towns of Maine, it is of very irregular form, with an area of perhaps fifty square miles. Of its six thousand inhabitants, one-third are French Canadians, drawn hither by the various factories and mills which have grown up about the falls of the Androscoggin. All but about five hundred of the inhabitants live in "the village"; and there is almost no foreign population other than the French. In 1894, the valuation of the town, "full, fair, cash value," as the annual reports take pains to state, was $3,514,436; the ordinary town expenses for the same year were $57,120, one-fifth of the taxes being paid by the corporations doing business in the town. "The village" is provided with water, gas, and electric light, and a sewerage system is being constructed. The public schools (the French children largely attending a parochial school), including a free high school, are among the best in the State; and there is a free public library of about six thousand volumes. The voters number about twelve hundred, although of the two thousand French less than a hundred and fifty vote. The three hundred and forty-five students of Bowdoin College add a considerable temporary population for several months in the year; and probably not far from $100,000 is annually expended in the town by the students and others connected with the college.

Although having a larger population than any other town in the State, Brunswick shows no desire to become a city. At least three attempts in this direction have been made, the last being in 1892; all have failed. There are but twenty cities in Maine; eight of these had each in 1890 a smaller population than Brunswick, and one of the remaining twelve exceeded it by only sixty-three. There are, of course, those who would prefer to see a mayor and council displace the selectmen, but with the great majority of the people the present conditions are entirely satisfactory. Yet it is manifest that the community presents, in population, industry, and wealth, many of the conditions which characterize the smaller cities of New England, and which are often thought to make a city organization, if not necessary, at least more effective. I looked forward, therefore, with interest to the annual town meeting, in which the business of the town for the coming year was to be discussed and arranged.

The annual meeting this year came on Monday, the 4th of March, and at a quarter before nine o'clock the bell on the town building rang out its summons to the citizens. The town hall is a large and not unattractive room, with a gallery in the rear, and the usual scenery and footlights on the stage; it will seat a thousand people, and has to do duty for all sorts of public assemblies. The day opened cold and blustering; and when, promptly at nine o'clock, the town clerk mounted the stage and began the reading of the warrant, there were exactly fifty people scattered about the room. The reading finished, ballots were taken for moderator and town clerk. The first of these officers received six votes, the second ten. Both were declared elected, and at once administered the oath to each other. The moderator was a prominent lawyer of "the village," and presided throughout the day with ability and acceptance. A short prayer by a retired minister resident in the town followed, and then the important business of the forenoon, the election of town officers, began.

During the previous week Democratic and Republican caucuses had been held, and had put in nomination lists of officers which were identical except in the three candidates for selectmen (one most commonly hears of selectmen in Brunswick). An attempt to organize a citizens' caucus had failed, although a "split" ticket appeared on Monday. Neither of the caucuses was largely attended, nor were the leading citizens very numerously represented. On Monday "straight" tickets seemed to be the rule. The polls remained open until one o'clock, at which time 712 votes had been cast. The number of votes was 114 less than last year; but this year no special effort was made to secure a large vote, and the cold weather doubtless kept away many from the country. Within the hall everything went on in a quiet and orderly manner. But few of the voters remained after depositing their ballots, though a few of the older men, some of them as genuine rustics as one could wish to see, sat on the hard benches the greater part of the forenoon, attentively studying the reports of the town officers and school committee, which had been printed in neat pamphlets and distributed. I formed the impression that these reports were more widely and carefully read than are similar documents in the smaller cities. Nearly every man I met had copies, and I heard them discussed in shops and stores, in the post-office and at street corners, as well as in the town hall.

The only offices over which there was any contest were those of selectmen, and here the Republican nominees won. The selectmen serve also as assessors, overseers of the poor, and surveyors of highways. The other principal officers—treasurer, collector, auditors, town agent, town clerk, and school committee—are usually reëlected year after year, following the good old New England custom. The "village" naturally gets the larger share of the offices; this year it has two of the three selectmen, all of the school committee, and all the other offices mentioned above except the town agent, an officer whose duty it seems to be to care for the legal interests of the town. As the compensation of the town agent last year was only $10, it may be inferred that his duties are neither numerous nor burdensome. I was told that it was customary to choose the moderator from the village, and that several of the college professors had at various times served in that capacity.

The popular interest of the day centred in the afternoon session. The voters were reinforced by a large number of students from the college and high school, who crowded the rear of the hall and watched the proceedings with evident interest. The moderator displayed considerable skill in expediting business, ten of the twenty-five articles in the warrant being disposed of in less than an hour. Most of the minor town officers were given another term, among them the time-honored measurers

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of wood and bark, surveyors of logs and lumber, fence-viewers, fire-wardens, and surveyor of shingles and clapboards. This part of the proceedings called out but little discussion; indeed, the vote on the adoption of each article was in most instances scarcely audible. The usual appropriations for town expenses were made without opposition, the amounts voted being in two or three instances in excess of those suggested in the annual reports. A statement from the public-library association to the effect that the appropriation of last year would need to be doubled this year if the library was to remain free to all residents of the town, was favorably received, and the amount asked for, one thousand dollars, was promptly voted. The library was made free only a year ago, and an increase from one hundred to nine hundred in the number of persons taking out books was convincing proof of popular satisfaction with the experiment.

One item of business before the meeting was "to see if the town will vote to accept a U-shaped town-way over land of D. B. Blethen on the west side of the Twelve Rod Road." The moderator explained that the way in question was not shaped like the letter U, but in reality formed three sides of a rectangle; and in proof he displayed a small plan of the locality. The acceptance of the road was achieved without opposition, and the next article was about to be taken up, when some one raised the momentous question as to what and by whom the new road was to be named. It then appeared that there were three streets in the locality, which the owner of the land had expressed a desire to name respectively Columbia and Belmont Streets and Central Avenue. A dignified gentleman was moved to ask the length of the street which it was proposed to call Central Avenue; and on being told that its length was twenty rods, provoked loud applause by remarking dryly that the proposed name seemed to him "somewhat ambitious." The town finally decided to name the new highway South Spring Street, because it was in line with a Spring Street in another part of the town, which might some day be extended.

Under the influence of the discussion over the new road the hitherto rather frigid assembly had thawed perceptibly, and began to show interest in what was being done. One or two requests for electric street lights were granted, the town listening attentively to brief arguments by several men who "drove a good deal," to the effect that several accidents had occurred either from the absence of lights at the points named, or because existing lights were badly placed. One light asked for was granted on the statement of the deputy sheriff that the locality was "a hard place," and that an electric light would make things easier for the town police—a suggestion which seemed to imply the existence of an embryonic slum.

The interest of the meeting reached its climax in connection with the proposed discontinuance of the liquor agency. Under the Maine liquor law, each town or city may, at its discretion, establish an agency for the sale of liquors for medicinal, scientific, and mechanical purposes. In 1894 the town meeting voted to request the selectmen to establish an agency in Brunswick, the town having been for several years without one; the agency was accordingly opened, and the annual report showed sales for the year amounting to $1,700. The reading of the article in the warrant referring to the agency was hardly finished before a loud chorus of voices burst forth, and half-a-dozen men were on their feet calling for recognition. The minister who at the morning session had thanked God for the "high moral character" of the town, obtained the floor, and, producing a manuscript, read from it a vigorous denunciation of the liquor traffic in general and the agency in particular; but his rhetoric and enthusiasm played havoc with his argument, for he presently dropped the subject of temperance, and devoted the larger part of his address to a glorification of Brunswick, Bowdoin College, and the chief justice of the United States. Although listened to with impatience, and frequently interrupted by applause from the crowd in the rear of the hall, there was nevertheless no disposition to deny him the right to speak as long as he chose. The short speeches in rebuttal were rather the best of the day, the last speaker, a blind man, bringing down the house as he urged his demand for an agency on the ground that he was tired of being lied to by all the druggists in town. The article of the warrant was adroitly worded: it was "to see if the town will vote to discontinue the liquor agency"; and there was doubt among some of those present as to the precise effect of a vote not to discontinue, since the maintenance of an agency is optional with the selectmen. The moderator was interrogated, but vouchsafed only evasive answers. By an overwhelming majority the town voted not to discontinue the agency. The episode illustrated very well the unfortunate tendency to make the mention of liquor the occasion for joke and jest, and also the plain wish of the people for a place at which liquor could be legally purchased.

I was disappointed in the general character of the public speaking throughout the day. With one or two exceptions, none of the speaking was good, and most of it was noticeably poor. Of course, no one nowadays would look for oratory in a town meeting; but the speaking on Monday was distinctly inferior, in simplicity, readiness, and effectiveness, to what may be found in many smaller communities. In this respect, at least, the old order has passed away.

The town meeting this year was an average meeting; that is to say, there was no great political contest to bring out the voters, and the warrant contained few items of special interest. The occasion was favorable, therefore, for observing the ordinary and usual conduct of the town business, and in particular the fitness of the town meeting for its work. I came to the following conclusions: The population of Brunswick is not yet either so large or so heterogeneous as to make town government inefficient or the town meeting unmanageable. The affairs of the town are well and economically administered, political corruption is unknown, and such political favoritism as exists is not at the expense of the public service. The town reports are extensively read and freely criticised. The centring of political control in the hands of a few men, most of them residents of the village, undoubtedly helps to simplify and expedite business. The French or foreign vote is small, but intelligent and appreciative, and, while naturally Democratic, is not cast as a unit for either political party. Non-political officers are reëlected year after year, practically without opposition. The town meeting remains as of old the event of the year, is well attended, and appeals forcibly to the young men of the community. A few men in the town meeting do most of the talking, but the measures passed have virtually unanimous approval. To sum up, the modifications in the old town system have been political rather than administrative, and while these changes are in the direction of more rigid party control, they have not yet interfered with a management of town affairs which is at once effective, economical, and pure.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

THE OPENING OF PARLIAMENT.

LONDON, February 26, 1895.

THE session has opened with a preliminary battle several times renewed and marked by incidents of great interest. The Government met Parliament with a nominal majority of 32, reduced during the recess to 14 by the formal defection of the 9 Parnellite members. The former majority of 32, none too large, was rather nominal than normal, because the attitude of the Parnellites was always unfriendly, and their support, often withheld, was tolerably certain only during the progress of the Irish Home-Rule Bill. The majority of 14 has been increased to 16 during the debate on the address, by a Liberal victory at Colchester. So small a majority, besides being an abiding element of danger, invited a repetition of the tactics which were pursued by the Opposition when the Liberals came into power after the general election of 1892. The old custom was for the Opposition, if they felt strong enough, to challenge the Government by moving an amendment to the address which was in terms or by implication (more often in terms) a vote of no confidence or of censure. It was done once and no more at that stage. But in August, 1892, the Opposition, believing that the Liberal majority of about forty contained elements of disintegration, delivered a series of assaults, led mainly by Mr. Chamberlain. These failed, and the Government was left materially stronger.

The same thing has happened again. The feature of the case most damaging to the Opposition has been that the unsuccessful attempts to dislodge the Government have been based on organized combination with groups to whose principles the Conservatives profess a strong antipathy. The Parnellites were, of course, available without any formal treaty. Then a dexterous attempt was made, by dangling the question of the unemployed, to detach from the Liberal Left the votes of a few members strongly sympathetic with labor distress, and not averse to socialistic experiments. That was the nature of the first amendment proposed by Mr. Jeffreys, member for an agricultural district in Hampshire. As it first appeared, it was a complaint of a familiar Conservative type, that the Government were neglecting agricultural depression. But, after consultation with Mr. Balfour, it was extended so as to include the question of the unemployed. The amendment was defeated by 12, nearly the full majority which the Government could reckon on. But the result was exhilarating to the Opposition and depressing to the Liberals, as it showed for the first time in black and white how slender an advantage in the House the latter possessed.

Next, Mr. Redmond, the Parnellite leader, moved an amendment calling for a dissolution on the question of home rule for Ireland. It was supported by the official Opposition, led by Mr. Balfour, but was defeated by a majority of 20. There were a few Conservative abstentions.

Then came the official Opposition amendment, which was intrusted to Mr. Chamberlain. The substance of it was, that the Government were bound to disclose their policy with

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

respect to the House of Lords, instead of wasting Parliamentary time on bills which they did not expect to pass. It was defeated by 14. The debate had then lasted a fortnight, and there were still several amendments on the paper. Sir William Harcourt moved the closure, which was carried by only eight votes, a few Liberals voting against it. This was a significant fact. In the face of the systematic obstruction which they may look for, it will be difficult for the Government to get through their tasks without a pretty frequent application of the closure, and the division last week illustrated the well-known fact that the closure is a weapon to wield which effectually requires a stronger majority than the Government can command.

The debate on the address was remarkable for two parliamentary duels—one between Mr. Goschen and Sir William Harcourt on Mr. Jeffreys's amendment; the other between Mr. Chamberlain on his own amendment and Mr. Asquith. The speeches of the leader of the Opposition were not remarkable throughout the long debate, so it came about that the fighting was done by champions both of whom were once prominent on the Liberal side. It is impossible to be impartial in such questions, but I believe that the general impression was that the advantage in both cases remained with the Government. In Mr. Chamberlain's case, that result was so conspicuous that it was freely admitted by a large portion of the Unionist press.

The situation for Mr. Goschen and Mr. Chamberlain was a difficult one. Mr. Goschen found himself defending the interests of the landlords in the country and the voluntary schools with "convulsive emotion," as Mr. Asquith happily described it. Mr. Goschen's attitude on those questions was once very different. His speech was an eloquent one, in spite of the tone of exaggeration and the almost theatrical delivery which are growing upon him, without, however, weakening his oratorical power when he is at his best. Mr. Chamberlain again rose to expound views on disestablishment in Wales, on the House of Lords, even on Ireland, diametrically opposed to those which a few years ago he preached in striking phrases which still cling to the memory of the House. The speech was not one of his best, and it met with a crushing reply from Mr. Asquith which substantially raised his high reputation as a debater. In strength, directness, precision, and closeness of reasoning he resembles Mr. Chamberlain himself, while his style has greater variety, felicity, and interest. The position of two quondam Liberals who have gone over to the Unionist camp is one which has been defended over and over again, and its difficulties are little calculated to dismay either Mr. Goschen or Mr. Chamberlain. But it did happen that on this occasion they were confronted with their own past more sharply than the House can remember to have witnessed, and in a fashion that was damaging to the Opposition attack.

The address over, the Government might have expected to be in smooth water, at least for some weeks to come. A new danger, the most threatening of all, appeared when Sir Henry James moved the adjournment of the House to discuss the new Indian cotton duties. The finances of India have been for some years in an unsatisfactory position, mainly, as is generally believed, in consequence of the adverse exchange arising from the steady depreciation of the silver rupee. Revenue cannot be made to cover expenditure. The country is poor, the salt tax is already onerous, and any increase of direct taxation in other directions is declared by the Indian Government to be impossible; they have long asked for the consent of the Home Government to reimpose an import duty on cotton goods, which existed till 1882, but had been condemned by votes of the House of Commons in 1877 and 1879. The request was long refused, but at length the present Secretary of State for India, Mr. Fowler, carrying out a conditional promise made by his predecessor, Lord Kimberley, sanctioned a 5 per cent. impost duty, but insisted at the same time on the imposition of a corresponding excise duty on the higher qualities of cottons, in which alone the very considerable Indian cotton industry comes into competition with Lancashire. In the coarser qualities Lancashire no longer competes to any appreciable extent with the native manufacture. So far as the previous decisions of the House of Commons were concerned, the new duties were defended on two grounds, first, that the duties had been condemned as protective duties, a grievance which the excise duty would redress; secondly, that they were condemned in terms only because at the time they were unnecessary in the financial situation of India, whereas they were now indispensable to the solvency of the Indian Government.

The Lancashire trade viewed the innovation with the utmost jealousy, and of the Lancashire members (more than forty, I think, in number) a large number, including a good many Liberals, were pledged to oppose the duties, while nearly all, under pressure from their constituents, were more or less hostile to them. In these circumstances there was a large Liberal defection at the disposal of the Opposition if they chose to join in the attack as a party, and when the day for Sir Henry James's motion arrived, the defeat of the Government was regarded as extremely probable, and the Government would not view the question as other than vital to their continuance in office. The intentions of the official Opposition were not disclosed, but they issued an urgent whip to their followers. During the day, some of the more respectable organs of the Conservative press dissuaded their leaders from taking advantage of the opportunity. Others never mentioned the subject at all, not knowing what advice would be palatable. In Liberal circles, after the experience of the divisions on the address, in which the Opposition leaders had not been too much hampered by scruples, it was pretty generally believed that the Opposition would not resist the temptation of throwing out the Government. It was thought that Mr. Chamberlain would strongly press for it, and that Mr. Balfour would not resist it. He is not the man to set on foot a political intrigue, but his cynical *insouciance* leads him into partnerships, as in the cases I have narrated, which, at least in the eyes of his opponents, do not appear worthy of him.

The result, however, was different. Sir Henry James has subsequently stated that the movement was promoted solely by the Lancashire members, without any concert with the Opposition as such. For all that, the Opposition doubtless considered what use they should make of the opportunity. One possible element leading to the decision not to make it a party attack may be found in the rivalry which is believed to exist between Mr. Goschen and Mr. Chamberlain for the reversion of the post of Chancellor of the Exchequer. Mr. Goschen strongly opposed the motion; but before he spoke, the work had been done. Sir Henry James opened his case with an unfortunate speech, stilted in style and jarring on the House by the reflections which he made on the Anglo-Indian service, which were strongly resented and sharply rebuked on both sides of the House. Mr. Fowler replied in an admirable and convincing speech, which is said to have turned many votes. He brought out the gist of the question, showing how great an injustice we should do to India if, for the sake of fostering a particular industry in England, we prevented India from raising the money which she absolutely requires by duties for revenue purposes, which every one of our self-governing colonies can and does levy without any restriction in amount. The motion was lost by an overwhelming majority.

One result of the Opposition having endorsed the opinion that the Government were neglecting the question of the unemployed has been that a large and strong committee has been appointed to investigate the question. The motion has been made in previous sessions by Mr. Keir Hardie, the Socialist member, but hitherto it has not been accepted, as it undoubtedly goes a certain length in the direction of adopting the avowed principle of the Socialists that the state is bound to find employment for all unemployed men. As it is, the local authorities have by law large powers of undertaking relief schemes. But the present distress is said, by the movers in the matter, to have got beyond those powers. The motion was more difficult to resist this year in consequence of the exceptional distress during the prolonged frost. But the main pressure on the Government arose from the adoption of the complaint by the Opposition for the purpose of embarrassing the Government. It may be an awkward precedent for the Conservative party in the future, and may force them in a direction in which they are not anxious to move. Meanwhile, the committee, which sits daily, evidently finds its task a difficult one.

The Government is left to begin the work of the session in a stronger position than when the House met. Its enemies will be on the lookout for side-issues and surprises like the Indian cotton duties. There are one or two members who sit on the Liberal side whose public utterances justify the suspicion that they would not be unwilling to open a back door to the besiegers. But their good-will in that respect has not been able to find any better expression than personal attacks in the House of Commons, on the Prime Minister in the Lords. It is probable that, after the last three weeks, the Opposition is not so anxious for a dissolution as its organs in the press profess to be, and in the meantime the Liberal party is in as satisfactory a position as is possible with so slender a majority. C. D.

LOUISE OF SAVOY AND FRANCIS I.

PARIS, February 28, 1895.

M. DE MAULDE has used many documents, some of them inedited, in a volume just published, entitled 'Louise de Savoie et François I.: Trente Ans de Jeunesse.' The mother of Francis I., and Francis I. himself, are both very interesting characters. When Francis became King, he left the details of the government almost entirely to his mother and to his chancellor, reserving for himself the occupation and excitement of perpetual wars.

The beginnings of Louise of Savoy, as is often the case with great queens and empresses, were of the humblest; she was the daughter of a poor cadet of the house of Savoy, the Count de Bresse, who spent half his

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

life in prison. Her aunt, fortunately for her, was the celebrated Anne de Beaujeu, the wife of Peter II., Duke of Bourbon. The child lost her mother at the age of eight years, and was adopted by Anne de Beaujeu. She was married at the age of twelve to Charles d'Angoulême, who was twenty-eight years old. She had first a daughter named Marguerite; her second child was Francis, born on the 12th of September, 1494. The Count had mistresses, and natural children who were brought up with the other children, in the little court of Cognac. "The situation of Louise," says M. de Maulde, "was not without examples, for instance, in the house of Orleans, where Dunois was brought up also by Valentine de Milan." M. de Maulde gives interesting details concerning this little court of Cognac. Count Charles was faithful to the artistic traditions of the Dukes Louis and Charles of Orleans, and of the good King René. His mother, Marguerite of Rohan, was fond of manuscripts on vellum, and several works were dedicated to her.

Louise of Savoy lost her husband in 1496; she was a widow at the age of eighteen. In the same year her father became Duke of Savoy. She remained at Cognac, with her miniaturist Testard, surrounded by several members of the family of Saint-Gelais, one of whom, Octavien de Saint-Gelais, was a poet, whose works are still found in the library of every bibliophile. His translation of Ovid met with extraordinary success and maintained its reputation for more than a century.

M. de Maulde has succumbed to the modern mania for psychological analysis. His chapter on "l'idée du beau" might be suppressed with advantage in a work which professes to be historical. It is clear that the famous influence of the "milieu," which has been used to satiety by Taine and his followers, was no more lost on Louise of Savoy than on anybody else in our time or in any other time. But it is idle, in dealing with a character like Louise of Savoy, to write a long dissertation on "the beautiful." The dominant passion of Louise was ambition; a monk had predicted to her that she would have a son, and that her son would be king. When Louis XII. became king, she left Cognac and was allowed to live at Amboise with her young son. She was not on very good terms with the Queen, Anne de Bretagne, nor with the King. Louis XII. was anxious to have a son, but his hopes were several times disappointed. His health was miserable, and he was in constant danger of a sudden death. Francis, now called the Duke of Valois, was the heir apparent—a fine, strong boy; all sorts of intrigues already surrounded him and filled the little court of Louise of Savoy. The governor of the young Prince, the Maréchal de Gié, was accused of high treason and deprived for a time of all his dignities. The King gave Francis a new governor in the person of the Cardinal d'Amboise. Anne de Bretagne was always trying to find a husband for Louise of Savoy out of France, so as to force her to leave the country; but Louise refused every offer, preferring to remain near her son.

The States-General met in May, 1506, and the betrothal of Francis to the King's daughter Claude was announced at Plessis-le-Tours. The young fiancée was six years old. The contract of marriage was read by the Chancellor: Claude received as her dower several estates—Blois, Coucy, etc.; in case a dauphin should be born, she had the promise of a large pension. Great festivities were celebrated, and one of the heroes of the tournament was Charles de Bourbon-Montpensier, the future Constable, the future enemy of Louise of Savoy. Anne de Bretagne long opposed the marriage of her daughter Claude with the Duke of Valois, but finally withdrew her opposition; she had lost all hope of having a son. The Duke of Valois now lived entirely at court, and M. de Maulde describes minutely his mode of existence. Among the young deities of the court, the first who seems to have attracted the attention of the future king was Anne de Graville. She had been celebrated in verse by Octavien de Saint-Gelais, and proclaimed by him—

"Seule, sans per, la plus belle des belles."

Like Louise of Savoy, she was fond of books, of illuminated manuscripts; she was a reader of Boccaccio, of Petrarch; she wrote verses herself. The young Prince made love to another maid of the Queen, to Françoise de Foix, the sister of two men, the Sires de Lautrec and de Lescun, who afterwards became his companions in arms. Françoise de Foix afterwards married the Seigneur de Chateaubriand. Even while paying court to these two ladies, Francis was occupied with women who surrounded his mother.

He was young, ardent, handsome. His features had not yet the exaggeration which is seen in the portraits made of him in after-life. He was passionately fond of dress, of fine accoutrements, of arms, of jewelry. The people compared this tall and strong youth with the old King, who was a constant invalid. In 1512, Anne de Bretagne had a son, but the child died almost immediately after its birth. Everybody already looked on the young Duke of Valois as the next king. He obtained the command of the army of Guienne, and made his first campaign with Odet de Foix, Sire de Lautrec. When Francis attained the age of nineteen, his household had already become royal: he had fifty-eight chamberlains and high officers, a hundred and thirty other officers, ten secretaries, a doctor, four almoners; he pensioned a painter, a sculptor, a miniaturist, and some musicians.

The Queen, Anne de Bretagne, died at Blois on the 9th of January, 1514. The little court of Cognac was much elated by the news. Forgetting all the dissensions of the past, the Queen, convinced that nothing could now hinder her daughter from belonging to Francis of Valois, had confided this daughter and her immense fortune to Louise of Savoy in her will. The poor King said: "Make the vault which will receive my wife large enough for two, for before a year I shall be her companion." Francis began already to play the King: he received all the ambassadors in private audience, he corresponded directly with the Pope, he took part in all negotiations. His extravagance no longer knew bounds; during the year 1514, the expenses of the Duke of Valois amounted to 140,000 livres, worth 3,600,000 francs in our modern currency; and this only for the household, independently of the expenses of the administration of his domains. The King, who had always been discreet and prudent in his expenses, was afraid of giving his daughter, and with her the Duchy of Brittany, to the prodigal Francis; he postponed the marriage, under various pretexts. The dispensation from Rome arrived at last, and the marriage took place, in the strictest privacy, on account of the King's mourning.

Francis was anxious to make a campaign in Italy. He said to the Venetian Ambassador: "The Duke of Bourbon has asked for the command of the Italian expedition; I have told him not to insist, as I want this command myself. The Duke bowed to me and said that he would aspire to the second rank. To this I assent, for he is a man of the first order. The King will have to give me eighteen thousand lansquenets and two thousand lances. With these, victory will be the affair of a week." Meanwhile, peace was signed with England, and one of its conditions was the marriage of the King of France with Mary, the sister of Henry VIII. This news drove Louise of Savoy almost frantic; she became fearful lest her son, after all, should be cheated of the crown of France. It has been said that at that moment she felt a violent passion for the Duke of Bourbon, that she offered herself to him, and that the future Constable received her offers coldly; this legend has never been proved, but, if it was true, it would explain a hatred which had afterwards terrible consequences.

The Duke of Valois had sufficient control over himself to affect great satisfaction with the King's new marriage; he laid all his plans to play a great part in the festivities of the occasion.

"Everything is in suspense," writes the shrewd Venetian Ambassador, "politics as well as the rest; people talk only of festivities. Such are the French. The marriage has been well received; they think themselves already in Milan. They were afraid only of England, and this phantom has vanished. The King repeats constantly that he will lose his life or retake Milan. . . . Unfortunately, nobody thinks of an obstacle which frightens me. To marry a woman eighteen years old, one of the handsome princesses in Europe, it is unanimously said, is for the King a notable change, and most dangerous in his state of health. There is the alarming black spot."

Mary of England deserved her reputation. She was received at Boulogne by the Dukes of Valois, of Alençon, of Bourbon. She had among her ladies Mary Boleyn, the sister of the celebrated Anne, and in her suite Charles Brandon, the Duke of Suffolk. Louis XII. met his bride at Abbeville; the entrance into Paris was a magnificent pageant. The tournament, in which the Duke of Valois appeared, lasted seven days.

"Mary, who saw the handsome Francis in his cloth of gold either in her escort or in the tournament, happened to find him to her taste, and the Prince fell into the trap. It was the first time that love played him such a Machiavellian trick. A courtier who generally was not facetious, but who on this occasion was very serious, saw the danger and did not hesitate to do his duty; he took the Prince apart and lectured him. The question was, was the Prince going to renounce the crown, and did he prefer to bow his head some day before his own bastard?"

The courtier had little success; Francis would hear nothing, he had eyes only for his new conquest. Grignols (such was the name of the courtier) took stronger means; he went to Louise of Savoy. She had not lost her power, and Francis had to abandon his prey. Mary, gay as a lark, very frivolous and light, changed the life of the court. Louis XII. became prodigal; he heaped all the diamonds of the crown on his young wife; he modified all his habits. After a few weeks, he became so ill that he had to take to his bed. When he felt that he was dying, he sent for Francis; he expired on the 1st of January, 1515, during a terrible tempest. Louise of Savoy came at once from Romorantin. Her son was King! Mary declared herself in the family way, but her error, more or less voluntary, was soon discovered. She received a large dower, and the King, who for a moment had been in love with her, authorized her marriage with Suffolk.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

Correspondence.

THE DIALECT DICTIONARY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The *Nation* has given some space to the mention of the dictionary proposed by the English Dialect Society, and asked for coöperation on this side of the water for the American material. It is particularly important that this appeal be very widely circulated and meet with widespread and hearty response, if there is to be any adequate representation of American usage in the great dictionary. The English society is over twenty years old; it has in England a much richer and more workable field than our country offers, a larger number of cultured people of leisure to do the work, and a more compact population to form into local branch societies. The American Dialect Society was organized in 1888; it has been from the first maintained chiefly by college men who are professionally interested. The first years have been occupied in work more or less tentative—feeling the way for effective work under the conditions presented by a country comparatively newly settled and having a population comparatively unstable. These conditions are now better understood than at the beginning, and seem to indicate that a lookout should be kept for (1) words and idioms brought by the early settlers, and preserved in the "hill towns" and other places where the population has remained stable; (2) such words and idioms carried to other localities, with possible changes of meaning; (3) new words, or words used in a new sense, formed or adopted to meet new conditions.

The Society has published collections amounting to about 1,500 words, many of which never were printed elsewhere; and there is on hand in manuscript, gathered by various members, or sent in by others, probably as much more, which is now being arranged, and will be printed in due time. There has been from the first much public interest shown, and the number of active members, and the quality of the work they have done, has constantly improved. There is every hope that in good time the membership will increase tenfold, and that means will be found to do thoroughly and systematically the work of collecting for publication most of the dialect usages current in the country; but the English society is ready to prepare its material for the press, and desires to have all we can give them before they print.

Besides the collection of material now going on, an important new line of work is the reading and excerpting of all the dialect matter already printed in this country, and editing it for dictionary use. Besides the books written wholly or partly in dialect, many newspapers, legal documents, old letters, etc., show occasional interesting local usages, and are worth watching. The more active members of the society have been in consultation for some time regarding this work, and ask the coöperation of the public in doing it. So far as it is perfected, the plan may be outlined as follows: A committee of the society will have supervision of the whole work, and decide what books shall be excerpted, and who shall do each one. This is absolutely essential to avoid duplication of work and other waste of energy. All persons who know of any books or other printed matter which they think may be useful, are requested to send full titles, with date and publisher as far as possible, to the secretary, who will take charge of the matter for the present. A list will be made up from these and others already known to the committee, and their value will be examined by competent persons. Those decided upon as important for the work will be assigned to the readers who volunteer. A list of such persons will be kept, and full directions for doing the work will be given with the assignment of the books.

It is desired that each book shall be read, so far as possible, by persons native to the region where the dialect used in the book is current. Preferences expressed as to the choice of work will be regarded so far as possible. The work is likely to be better done if the readers who are within reach of each other are organized into local clubs, working under the supervision of some one who is better informed than the average on the relations of the subject; such a club could be formed, for instance, at almost any town where there is a college or other educational institution, to work under the supervision of the instructor in English. It is intended to hold before long a public meeting in New York with a view to forming one or more such local organizations here. Such clubs can be made headquarters also for the old work of collecting material from the spoken language, and can be kept up after the reading work is done.

New members, and large numbers of them, are greatly needed at once, but collections of material or offers of assistance in the work of reading are always welcome from any source.

E. H. Babbitt, Secretary.

Columbia College, March 11, 1895.

AN AMERICAN REVIEW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I am forcibly reminded this week of a suggestion in your columns some time ago in favor of an American literary review. The *Tribune* of the last two Sundays has contained Prof. Lounsbury's review of the Oxford Chaucer by Prof. W. W. Skeat. This edition of Chaucer is the work of the best Chaucer scholar in England; it is reviewed by the foremost American Chaucer scholar, who finds no more suitable medium for the presentation of his criticism than the voluminous sheets of a Sunday newspaper. The incident may fairly be taken as a reflection upon the cultivation of letters among us. Is it a true measure of attainment?

Reviews of high character succeed in foreign countries. Scholarly men and women are naturally attracted to them and by them, and they do a great work in formulating the best opinion on the best subjects. Many of these publications are taken in this country, if not directly into the family circle, at least into our numerous libraries. There is certainly a steady demand—I believe an increasing demand—for sound literature, without pictures to weaken and to cheapen it.

Here is a promising field for the wise expenditure of money. It is a fine thing to found a college for the education of young men or young women. But a philosophical observer might draw some edifying conclusions by contrasting the number of such foundations in the United States with the amount of endowment for individual research, or for special effort in any particular line of advanced scholarship. Moreover, American endowments of this sort have been so far largely in science, with the really brilliant exception of the Turnbull Lectureship on Poetry at the Johns Hopkins University.

We need a literary periodical to seek out and publish manuscripts that now lie idle because they do not appeal to the passing interests of the hour; we need it to withstand the avalanche of easy magazine-writing that descends upon us with such depressing mediocrity and relentlessness; we need it to arrest the degradation of art.

Who will found an American Review?

Mary Augusta Scott.

1507 Park Avenue, Baltimore, Md., March 7, 1895.

THE BOND SALE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Continuing upon the line of my letter published in the *Nation* of February 28, I desire to offer as a logical explanation of the high price obtained by the syndicate for the recent issue of bonds, as compared with that paid by them, the fact that this resale was a transaction between individuals wherein the purchaser had no such advantages as did the syndicate in its sale of gold to the Government. While the Morgan-Belmont people were permitted to reap the benefits of the gold squeeze, I believe it will be found that the Treasury has secured an immunity against gold-hoarding by the public, at least for the present, fully justifying its course. It was our dire necessity upon which the gold men kept their eyes steadily fixed, and most of them have been left gazing upon vacancy. No wonder they were mad.

W. M. Haley.

St. Louis, March 7, 1895.

Notes.

Prof. Wm. H. Goodyear solicits subscriptions, at ten dollars or two guineas, to a forthcoming work of his on 'Optical Refinements, Perspective Illusions, and Symmetrophobia in Medieval Architecture,' involving many unpublished personal discoveries and measurements by this well-known writer on art. As Mr. Goodyear will sail for Europe on April 30 to prosecute his surveys, he desires to be addressed without delay at No. 222 East Sixty-ninth Street, New York.

Merrill & Baker, No. 74 Fifth Avenue, have undertaken an illustrated cabinet edition of the Works of George Eliot, together with her Life by J. W. Cross. It will be illustrated with 120 etchings and "photo-etchings," and will consist of twenty-four volumes, procurable as a set or singly. A large-paper edition is also announced.

Edward Fitzgerald's letters to Fanny Kemble, which *Temple Bar* is publishing serially, will be issued in book form by Macmillan & Co., in a style uniform with their two-volume edition of the letters already published. Meantime they have in preparation 'Louis Agassiz: His Life, Letters and Works,' by Jules Marcou.

Gibbon's Memoirs, edited by Prof. Oliver Farrar Emerson of Cornell, is in the press of Ginn & Co.

Canon Farrar's 'Woman's Work in the Home' is to be published in this country by Henry Altemus, Philadelphia.

The Hartford (Conn.) Seminary Press will publish directly 'Qualifications for Ministerial Power,' by the Rev. Chas. Cuthbert Hall.

Spring announcements by T. Fisher Unwin are: 'The Story of Early Gaelic Literature to the Close of the Danish Period,' by Dr. Douglas Hyde; a new collection of Breitmann Ballads, by Chas. G. Leland; 'Reminiscences

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

of Richard Cobden,' by Mrs. S. Schwabe; 'Sonya Kovaleski,' by the Duchess of Cajanello; 'Some Ancient English Homes and their Associations,' by Miss E. Hodges; 'Vedic India,' by Mme. Z. A. Ragozin; 'Female Offenders,' by Prof. Lombroso; Spinoza's 'Emendation of the Intellect,' translated by Hale White; 'My Climbs in the Alps and Caucasus,' by A. F. Mummery; and 'Matabeleland,' by Capt. H. S. Norris.

Three more novels in the Waverley series, "International Limited Edition" (Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan & Taylor Co.), bring us, through 'Woodstock,' 'The Fair Maid of Perth,' and 'Anne of Geierstein,' in two volumes each, up to the 45th volume, leaving four yet to come. We are inclined to think that Mr. Lang's task has told upon him as Scott's, in the desperate money-making period, did on him. His introductions to the three works before us have no spontaneity, and are of little value apart from the mention of circumstances or moods connected with the writing of each of the novels. That the same weariness has overtaken the illustrators, we would not affirm, yet they are certainly not approaching a climax of excellence.

The appearance of the new one-volume edition of Chaucer edited by Prof. Skeat (Macmillan) is not on a par with that of the other volumes in the series—whether because it has been manufactured on this side of the water or not, we cannot determine. Nevertheless it is a great boon, and will be the edition most used for reference. In one respect it is better than the large edition, viz., the two forms of prologue to the "Legend of Good Women" are printed in parallel columns without any perplexing attempts at amalgamation.

The lesser "Poole," alias the 'Annual Literary Index,' for 1894, edited by W. I. Fletcher and R. R. Bowker, has just appeared (New York: *Publishers' Weekly*). As usual, it indexes the chief periodicals, 124 in number, giving the writer's name beside each article, if known, and adding a special author-index. It also indexes a certain class of books—collective essays and the like—64 in number. Finally, it describes the bibliographies of the year, and takes note of the necrology. For a clue to current thought and criticism in the English language this work is simply indispensable.

Mr. Wynkoop Kiersted, C.E., in his 'Discussion of Sewage Disposal' (New York: John Wiley & Sons), goes over that subject with especial reference to dilution, irrigation, filtration, and precipitation as methods of sewage disposition applicable to the United States. His little volume, which is intelligently, but not very clearly, written, gives a fair résumé of the subject, and does not presume to assert that any particular mode is the best, "for the most approved method of disposal will invariably hinge upon its natural adaptability to the conditions of the locality in question." It is a discussion of principles, not of details.

In the 'Elementary Properties of the Elliptic Functions, with Examples,' by A. C. Dixon (Macmillan), we have elliptic functions without the theta functions, and without the doctrine of transformations!—the theory somewhat maimed by the one omission, the practical application badly hampered by the other. Yet we cannot say the book will serve no purpose other than that of passing examinations; for the thorough mastery of it will be a key to unlock the more recondite treatises, and will render all casual allusions to elliptic functions in mathematical writings intelligible. It will also form a good introduction to the theory of functions. The limited subject has so much analogy to trigonometry that it calls for little additional exercise of memory. It is pretty itself, and makes trigonometry—that dreadful instrument—to appear pretty. It is given chiefly in the classical forms of Jacobi; but the other avenues to it are described, including the super-modern presentation of Weierstrass (for which, we believe, there are no extensive tables).

'Ideler's Handbuch,' though it appeared as long ago as 1825, remains in use as the standard work on chronology, in general, to-day. In fact, there has been no serious attempt to supersede it. The 'Mathematische Chronologie' of Prof. W. F. Wislicenus (Leipzig: B. G. Teubner) is intended to supplement it. At the time Ideler wrote, not only was the theory of the moon in an imperfect state, but no tables of note had been published to aid calculations in chronology. Since that time, excellent tables by Largeteau, Dankworth, Oppolzer, Schram, and Wislicenus himself, have been calculated for various chronological needs, and this little book is a clear explanation for the unmathematical of every problem of mathematical chronology, with examples worked out by means of the modern tables, the use of which is so lucidly and so fully explained that no sane person can have any difficulty in working with them.

Edmond Biré returns to Victor Hugo in 'L'Année 1817' (Paris: H. Champion). The chapter in 'Les Misérables' which bears the above title forms, the author says, "le clou auquel j'ai accroché mon esquisse." The scores of "historical" facts of which, the reader may remember, this entire chapter is composed, are subjected by Biré to a thorough sifting process, with the result that all, or nearly all, prove to be false or inaccurate. The author's political and religious bias is no less apparent than in his earlier works. The biographical incidents with which this "peinture anecdotique" of the Second Restoration abounds, will prove highly entertaining, to say the least, to the student of Hugo, as well as to the student of the history of the epoch. We must refrain from quoting from M. Biré's pages more than a single *mot* of Mme. de Staël's (who, according to the author of 'Les Misérables,' had been dead a year in 1817!). After listening for more than an hour to Baour-Lormian reading his own translation of Tasso, somebody whispered to her: "It is very fine indeed, but don't you think it rather long?" "Je prends mon plaisir en patience," she replied.

The name of Gustave Larroumet, so familiar to students of Molière, fitly associates itself with the Hugo critics of the past decade. His modest, though elegantly printed, brochure, 'La Maison de Victor Hugo: Impressions de Guernesey' (Paris: H. Champion), opens a vista for psychological speculation not only upon the evident influence of the poet's *milieu* upon his works in the period subsequent to 1852, but also upon the analogy between his poetic creations and style and his tastes and skill in other branches of art. The partiality of the "poète-décorateur" for the grotesque ornaments of Gothic art and Chinese monsters, and his curious passion for, and remarkable skill in, forming out of heterogeneous fragments from diverse sources original new combinations for the embellishment of walls and ceilings in Hauteville House, are especially characteristic.

M. Auguste Devaux's 'George Sand' (Paris: Ollendorff) has had the honor of being crowned by the French Academy. Its easy and flowing style, the picturesque summary of George Sand's life, and the appreciation of her work justify the commendation bestowed, but the booklet is not one of great importance, nor does it form an essential contribution to the literature on this subject.

'À propos de nos Écoles' (Paris: Colin & Cie.) is a collection of speeches and articles by M. Ernest Lavisse, whose name is well known on this side the Atlantic. It is a satisfying book to read, for M. Lavisse is a real educator, who fights unceasingly against routine, formalism, conventionality, official regulation, the tyranny of the examination system, and other evils which weigh down educational work and hinder educational progress in other countries than France. The attempt to put new wine into old vessels, to patch the old cloth with bits of new, to force new generations to submit to antiquated formulas, he denounces on every page; and while we in America are free from many of the disadvantages which he combats, there are truths in M. Lavisse's book which should be taken to heart by many of our instructors, who are instructors only, and in no sense educationists. The truths may prove unpalatable, but they are truths, nevertheless.

The approach of Bismarck's eightieth birthday has evoked a permanent memorial of him in the shape of a quarterly review of German history, art, and life, named after him—*Bismarck* (Berlin: Otto Kirmse; New York: Westermann). It will be illustrated, and every spring a special example will be furnished, along with the ordinary embellishments. To begin with, Lenbach's latest portrait of Bismarck, an etching fit to be hung on the wall, will be given.

The *Library Journal* for December, 1894, is full to overflowing with a report of the Lake Placid conference of librarians in September last. No one can read these proceedings without a realizing sense of the strength of library coöperation in this country, and the deliberate part which librarians are taking in the moral elevation of the community. President Larned's opening address has a well-considered warning as to "the magnified potency that is given to all things, good or ill, by the science of the modern man," and hence to "ignorant opinions." "Leagues, unions, federations, associations, orders, rings, form themselves among the restless, unstable elements of the time as easily as clouds are formed in the atmosphere, and with kindred lightning flashes and mutterings of thunder." Among the discussions that deserve attention are those on "home libraries" (circulating-boxes among the poor), the attitude of the libraries towards university extension, and the rôle of the daily newspaper in the library. We remark, also, a summary of library benefactions, July 1, 1893–'94, footing up $1,328,597. A good example of the practical, economic bearing of these meetings is the movement to induce publishers to print special durable editions of popular works for libraries.

Both the moralist and the historian might easily pick flaws in Dr. Wm. Everett's political apology for the late Robert C. Winthrop in the current *Harvard Graduates' Magazine*. But the general tribute is strikingly graceful in form, and the praise of what is to be praised just and discriminating. A good portrait accompanies the article, as is also the case with Mr. Davis's account of Thomas Hollis, one of the earliest and most princely benefactors of Harvard; and the welcome announcement is made that the rich store of canvases of Harvard worthies is to be regularly drawn upon for this magazine. Prof. Hart's mid-year re-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

trospect has much of the originality, piquancy, and suggestiveness of President Eliot's annual reports. "It is evident," he says, among other things, "that Columbia, and not Yale, is to be the great rival of Harvard in the higher studies." Both Harvard and Columbia are nearly at a standstill in point of growth of attendance in the arts department. Apropos of the recent appointment of a Publication Agent for the University, Prof. Hart expresses a desire for a Clarendon Press at Harvard. We hope shortly to be able to furnish our readers some interesting details concerning this foundation at Oxford. Prof. Hart gives notice of a forthcoming series of Harvard Historical Studies, to be issued by his department.

M. Édouard Rod, in his quality of novelist, has just had a somewhat curious legal experience. One of his stories was lately reproduced in the *Ami du Peuple*, of Fribourg, and a convict in that town thought that he found in the tale a portrait of himself which lacked reserve. Antoine Maradan his name was, and he had been sent to jail for a seven years' term for attempting to rid himself of a second wife by throwing her into the Sarine. M. Rod had deepened the shadows of his story by attributing to the personage in whom Maradan recognized himself the murder of a former wife. So he brought suit against the author and the publisher of the newspaper, first in the local court at Fribourg, and afterwards, on appeal, at Geneva. He got no damages, all the courts holding that a novelist had an absolute right to take his subjects from real life. With so lax a construction of the law of libel as that one might almost look for a recrudescence of realism.

—*Bibliographica* completes its first volume with Part iv., and two more equally sumptuous volumes are to come (London: Kegan Paul; New York: Scribners). In the notable contents of the present issue, we must confine our remarks to Mr. A. J. Butler's illustrated paper on "The Initial Blocks of Some Italian Printers." Mr. Butler has found that initial letters "designed on the principle of the work known to most of us in our childhood, which taught us that A was an Archer," were the prevailing fashion in Italian books issued approximately in the third quarter of the sixteenth century—in Venice particularly, with the general exception of Aldus's publications. He cites, without picturing his examples, three books published at Venice by Domenico Giglio, viz., Gesualdo's Petrarch, 1553, the 'Diporti' of G. Parabosco, 1558, and a 'Capitoli' of 1566. The Petrarch contains eleven letters of an alphabet in which each square block measures nearly 1.5 inches, and the 'Capitoli' contains a twelfth. Besides these in the Petrarch occur six smaller letters, nearly one inch square, and of this minor alphabet Mr. Butler will discover in Giglio's Machiavelli, 1554, not only the E (Europa), but a C (Moses exposed by his mother?), D (Dido falling on her sword?), L (two men in the water and a woman kneeling on the beach?), and T, which agrees with Mr. Butler's description of the corresponding large letter in the 'Capitoli,' save that we have a serving-man in place of a satyr with a dish. We may also direct his attention to the 'Decameron' published at Florence in 1573 by the brothers Giunti, with still larger initials (1.625 in.), resembling the foregoing in style, but not personal or symbolical, consisting nearly all of hunting scenes. Yet here are intercalated an F (Phaethon), L (Leda), and N (Neptune), that might belong to the Petrarch series, though that has its own Neptune. There are also a G (eagle or harpy carrying off a child), P (harvesters), and R (satyr uncovering a sleeping woman), which have no relation to the hunting series. Redrawn copies of the A, I, and T of the 'Decameron' were facsimiled by Mr. George C. Mason in his 'Annals of Trinity Church, Newport, R. I.' (1890), along with the N, P, and S used by Gabriele Giolito de' Ferrari (1546-1559) as noted by Mr. Butler, and several others having games or music for the motive of the designs. The source of Mr. Mason's reproductions was the London *Building News* of a date some years previous to 1890.

—Mr. George P. Baker's edition of Lyly's 'Endymion' (New York: Holt) is a somewhat noteworthy contribution to Elizabethan literary history. Of the notes, which, though few in number, and usually very brief, contain several good suggestions, we need say nothing. It is the Introduction which calls for more particular notice. This contains an elaborate investigation of the facts of Lyly's life, and an exhaustive study of the chronology of his writings. New materials proved undiscoverable, in spite of much effort, but, for all that, we have in this monograph a thoroughly original piece of work. Mr. Baker has subjected the collections of his predecessors to a criticism so searching, and has examined their conclusions and theories with so much good sense and acumen, that his results, though, from the nature of the case, in some respects tentative, must in the main meet with ready acceptance. These results throw light on a number of the obscurest problems of Elizabethan literature. They are arrived at by close reasoning, and they are so stated that one is never in doubt as to what is demonstration, what doubtful inference, and what conjecture. This conscientious discrimination is in itself no small merit in a book dealing with subjects so often delivered over to guess-work and to what one is sometimes almost vexed enough to call scholastic chicanery. With some of Mr. Baker's conclusions we cannot agree; but his arguments on most questions are cogent, and his opinions always command respect. The delay in the publication of 'Euphues and his England' is for the first time satisfactorily accounted for; Lyly's connection with the Harvey-Nash imbroglio is clearly defined; and the chronological order of the comedies is settled with a high degree of probability. The puzzling matter of the child-actors is well treated, and several dark points are cleared up, though we do not think Mr. Baker has hit upon the true explanation of the "general pardon." We have no space for further details. Our purpose is merely to call the attention of students of the period to a work which appears in a form so modest as to disguise its real importance.

—Samuel Bamford's 'Passages in the Life of a Radical' appeared at the very crisis of the Chartist agitation in England. Its purpose was to describe the reform movements of a period twenty years earlier, and particularly the Peterloo episode, in which the author had himself been concerned; but while it did this with sympathy and vigor, it had, and was intended to have, a sobering effect upon the physical-force enthusiasts of 1840. The book has continued to be known by those interested in the social and political history of England during the years following the Continental war as one of the most valuable and entertaining sources of information upon working-class conditions and feeling, especially in Lancashire. But of late it could be found only with difficulty in the second-hand bookshops; and it has been a happy thought to reprint it (London: Fisher Unwin; New York: Putnams), and so commend it to a wider circle. With the addition of the 'Early Days,' it now makes two pleasant little volumes; and Mr. Henry Dunckley supplies an introduction which, in spite of its somewhat too condescending tone, seems to present a fair estimate of Bamford's career, and gives some particulars of his later life. The first volume, that containing the 'Early Days,' should attract the attention of a class of readers who are little likely to open the memoirs of minor agitators, to wit, the whole tribe of folk-lorists. It gives a genial account of Lancashire folk-lore and folk-usage, from the point of view not of a scholar or antiquary who looks upon it as a foreign world, but of one who as boy and youth had himself lived in its midst.

—An interesting experiment has just been made by one of the great London morning papers. The *Daily Chronicle*, by way of furthering the cause of the Progressives in the recent London County Council elections, published in its daily issue a series of papers on the Council and its work, to prove, chiefly, that something besides the increase in the rates had been accomplished. This series was illustrated. Of course, it is not the first attempt to illustrate a daily paper. There has been time almost to forget the New York *Daily Graphic*, while the London sheet of the same name and the Paris *Quotidien* seem now to be fairly well established. But it is in the quality of illustrations that such a novel departure has been made, while the breaking away of a London morning journal from English journalistic traditions is, indeed, a concession to new conditions. One knows, by this time, the inevitable mechanical drawing turned out to suit the exigencies of "process" and rapid printing; one knows it, and has long since wearied of it. But the *Chronicle*, with admirable courage, has been daring enough to go to really good men, among others Mr. Whistler and Sir Edward Burne-Jones, and ask their services. The first illustration that appeared was a large cartoon by Burne-Jones, in design very similar to his frontispiece for the 'Dream of John Ball.' Here, naturally, there was no thought of the "process" man, and yet the result was as vigorous as could be. However, the printing has varied tremendously, and on some days has been abominably bad, showing the enterprise to be still in the experimental stage. On others it has been a marked success, fortunately never more so than in the reproduction—enlarged so as to extend across the page—of Mr. Whistler's etching of "Black Lion Wharf." This came clear and sharp, the blacks pure and brilliant, the line clean and strong. It was really a triumph for the printer, or, perhaps it should be said, for modern steam printing, for the illustrated page, as well as the rest of the paper, was printed on an American Hoe press at the rate of nearly 22,000 an hour. Nothing could have proved more thoroughly the absurdity of the doctrine, prevailing in England, that the draughtsman must suppress his own individuality and work down to "process" and the steam press. Mr. Alfred Parsons, Mr. Phil May, Mr. Walter Crane, Mr. Sambourne, Mr. Joseph Pennell are among some of the other contributors.

—The fifth volume of Prof. Lamprecht's 'Deutsche Geschichte' (Berlin: Gaertner), which has been given to the public in advance of the fourth volume, shows more clearly than any previous portion of this work that its au-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

thor is destined to be *the* historian of the German people. It comprises the period from the time of the great reformatory councils to the end of the first (revolutionary) phase of Luther's activity, and deals largely with the social, religious, literary, and artistic tendencies of the fifteenth century. It is not too much to say that not since Jacob Burckhardt's 'Kultur der Renaissance in Italien' has there appeared in Germany a contribution to the history of modern civilization equally profound or comprehensive. It is, of course, impossible in a short notice even to outline the scope of such a book. Suffice it to say that its leading thought—the development of the modern personality—is brought out in even stronger relief and with greater fulness than was the case in Burckhardt's epoch-making work. This is largely due to the fact that Prof. Lamprecht brings to his task a more intimate knowledge of social and economical conditions than was at the command of his intellectual predecessor, while in literary and artistic observation he has not in vain adapted himself to the method of that great master of analysis. If we were to select any part of this volume in which the art of the historian seems to be at its highest, we should name two chapters, entitled respectively "The Development of the Individualistic Society" and "The Ascendency of Individualistic Culture." A passage on the decline of the mediæval spirit, taken from the former, may show the author's skill in tracing the great trend of public life even to its remotest effects:

"Language also testifies to the decomposition of the old corporate consciousness, by developing from the word 'bursa'=student-association the individualistic 'bursche'; from 'camerata'=company of room-mates the equally individualistic 'comrade'; and finally, although not before the beginning of the seventeenth century, from the middle-high-German 'vrouwenzimmer'=γυναικεῖον the modern isolated 'Frauenzimmer.' The late development of this latter conception is not without significance. What was still absent from the individualistic society of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries is woman. In no way do the women of this period of our history play a part which could be compared with that of the Italian women of the same period. The Italian Renaissance is rich in learned, refined, intellectual, nay inspired representatives of the other sex; the German Renaissance knows at best of the vivacious sisters of Pirckheimer or of Peutinger's little daughter, who, when only a few years old, had learned some Latin verses by heart. On the whole, Germany had not yet found the right mean between the mediæval detestation of woman as inculcated by the Church, and her equally mediæval deification as demanded by the code of chivalry. Woman therefore remained apart even from the society of the sixteenth century; and only in the extraordinary perfection of fancy-work, especially of embroidery, and in the luxuriant fashions which carried the cult of the outward personality to the extreme of grotesqueness, is the growing influence of the feminine to be seen."

—We are in receipt of the following information from the holder of the European Fellowship of the Association of Collegiate Alumnæ:

The present winter semester finds fifteen women studying at the University of Göttingen—three English women, one German, and eleven Americans. Seven of them are students of mathematics, astronomy, and physics; the others are working in chemistry, philosophy, history, or political economy. Each candidate for admission must make application to the Prussian Ministry of Education through the curator of Göttingen University. This application must be accompanied by testimonials and a recommendation from a member of the university faculty who has examined the testimonials and the extent and nature of the candidate's previous study. If the result of this application is favorable, the candidate registers as a hearer (*Hospitant*), not as a matriculated student; and after that she must still, like other *Hospitanten*, obtain a special permission from those professors whose courses of lectures she is desirous of hearing. The opening of lectures to women lies thus at present almost entirely with the individual professors; some willingly admit suitable women to their lecture-rooms, others do not oppose the general tendency and tolerate women hearers, while others utterly refuse to grant them admission. When once admitted, the woman student enjoys all the advantages of the regular matriculated student; she also has all library, seminary, and reading-room privileges, and she pays the usual university lecture fees. "The faculty does not refuse to women, as such, permission to take the doctor's examination, but reserves to itself the right of presenting or of refusing to present to the minister any particular request for such permission." At the end of the present year three women will ask for the doctor's degree, and we shall then know with what liberality the above decision of the faculty will be interpreted. The cautiousness exhibited in all these arrangements arises from the fact that the admission of women is still regarded as a debatable question, and it is desired not to commit the university to any steps which cannot easily be retraced later, if that should seem to be necessary. On this account, it is particularly to be desired that no woman should undertake to study at Göttingen who is not thoroughly well prepared for her work, and has not a definite aim and motive in her study; even if suitable students should present themselves in very large numbers, while the experiment is still in this tentative stage, that would also, perhaps, be a cause for regret. It is the wish of Prof. Klein, who, with Prof. Elias Müller, has interested himself warmly in this question, that the conditions of the admission of women to the university lectures, and the general attitude of the university faculty towards this admission, should be clearly and definitely understood by American women.

SYBEL'S GERMAN EMPIRE.—I.

Die Begründung des Deutschen Reiches durch Wilhelm I. Von Heinrich von Sybel. Sechster Band. Munich: R. Oldenbourg; New York: Westermann. 1894.

After an interval of five years Von Sybel resumes the publication of his great history. The five volumes which appeared in 1889 brought the narrative down to the autumn of 1866. The late appearance of the sixth volume is due to the fact that in 1890, a few months after the dismissal of Bismarck, the present Emperor withdrew from the historian the privilege of using the Prussian archives. William II. probably thought that Von Sybel had given Bismarck too much credit for the achievements of 1864 and 1866, and may well have deemed it undesirable that any considerable portion of the glory of 1870 should be diverted from the crown to the ex-chancellor. In the preface to the present volume the author states, without comment, the fact of his exclusion from the archives, and adds that at first it seemed to him impossible to complete his work. Further consideration, however, gave him more courage. For a study of the interval of peace between the Austrian war and the French, the Prussian documents were of less vital importance than in the preceding years of internal and external conflict. Much documentary material had been printed in German and foreign works, and a large part of this had not been adequately utilized. Moreover, the historian himself—and this was for him the decisive consideration—had lived through the events which he was to describe, under circumstances which brought him in touch with the men who were making the history of those years. From the beginning of his work he had found these men ready to give him information on points of the greatest importance; in fact, the more considerable the information they possessed, the more ready were they to impart it. Unpublished journals, letters, and autobiographies were also placed at his disposal. Finally, he had contracted with his publisher to write the history of Prussia from 1850 to 1870, and the publisher would have his bond. Whether the publisher acted wisely, the author leaves to the "competent public" to determine.

The competent public will probably say that the present volume, which covers the year 1867 and a part of 1868, could ill have been spared, and it will welcome the forthcoming seventh volume, with which the work is to end. The skill so to order details that the story marches smoothly; the judgment which discriminates between cardinal facts and those of secondary importance, and the art which gives to the former their due relief; the charm of style which makes a work of patient research easy reading—these are qualities which Von Sybel neither found in the Prussian archives nor left there; and, *pace* Seeley and his school, the world has not yet outgrown the literary historian. At the same time the reader will miss something that he found in the previous volumes. The exact and minute information afforded by original documents enables the historian to give to his pictures a sharpness of outline and wealth of illustrative detail not otherwise attainable. The slight suggestion of haziness, as in an ill-focussed photograph, which hangs about some portions of this volume, is partly due, however, to the author's conscientiousness, which does not permit him to present any inference, however well founded, as a matter of knowledge. It is improbable that the study of Prussian or other archives will seriously modify the impression of this period which Von Sybel gives us, but the reader is constantly reminded that such a modification is not impossible.

The political events of 1867 and 1868 fall, from the German point of view, into three chief groups: the pacification and reorganization of the territories annexed by Prussia in 1866, and the *mise en œuvre* of the North German Federation; the rapid establishment of closer relations between North and South Germany; and finally the growing tension between Germany and France. Of special interest, under the first head, is the description of the way in which the North German Constitution was drafted. The treaties of 1866 had merely indicated the general character of the new union. A constitution was to be submitted to the representatives of the North German governments and ratified by a North German parliament. On his return in December, 1866, from a much-needed vacation, Bismarck found two complete projects worked out by secretaries of the Foreign Office. Both of these he discarded, finding them unavailable even as a basis for correction. On the afternoon of the 13th he dictated to another secretary, Lothar Bucher (an ex-revolutionist, by the way, of 1848), the most important articles of the new constitution, with indications of the lines on which the rest of the document was to be drawn. That night Bucher and Delbrück worked out the new project. It was approved by the Prussian ministry on the following afternoon, and on the 15th it was submitted to the representatives of the allied governments. They suggested numerous amendments, of which eighteen were accepted; and in the constituent parliament thirty-nine more amendments were voted by the representatives of the people and accepted by the allied

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

governments. When the South German states came into the Union, and the Federation was transformed into the German Empire (1871), a few more changes were made; but in its main lines the constitution under which fifty millions of Germans are still living is the constitution which Bismarck dictated to Bucher on that December afternoon twenty-eight years ago. When it was first published, the London *Times* remarked, in all seriousness, that it was sufficiently illogical to justify the hope that it would work well; and a distinguished German professor of public law complained that it was impossible to decide in which of the established categories this constitution belonged. Von Sybel justly remarks of Bismarck's original draft, that it showed an extraordinary grasp of what was practically needed, without regard to theory or doctrine.

The extension of Prussian influence over South Germany is admirably described and explained. Within less than two years the offensive and defensive alliances concluded in 1866 were ratified by the South German legislatures; the Prussian military system was introduced into each of the South German armies; Moltke's plan for meeting a French attack was adopted by the South German staffs, and a new and stronger customs union was formed. In the customs treaties of 1867 it was provided that duties should be fixed by a customs parliament, which was to be constituted by adding South German delegates to the Federal Council, and South German deputies to the Diet of the North German Federation. This Parliament met at Berlin in 1868, and to turn it into the Imperial Parliament which met there three years later, nothing was needed but to change its name and extend its competence. The organization of the two bodies was identical. All these steps toward unity, however, were taken unwillingly, as far as the majority of the South Germans were concerned. All the southern governments, with the exception of that of Baden, were opposed to any close union. The people of Baden and of Hesse desired to join the North German Federation, but the Clericals of Bavaria and the Democrats of Würtemberg were full of hostility to Prussia, and sent anti-Prussian deputies to the customs parliament. The military and economic alliance with the North was forced upon a reluctant South—not by the North, for Bismarck deemed it unwise to attempt to hasten the progress of events, but by the inexorable logic of the situation. The southern states could not stand alone, either in war or in peace. They could not even stand together, as the Bavarian Prime Minister, Prince von Hohenlohe (now Chancellor of the Empire), discovered when he tried to bring about the South German union for which the Peace of Prague had made provision. The Würtembergers feared Bavaria less than they feared Prussia, but they were quite as jealously hostile to a Bavarian as to a Prussian hegemony, while the people of Baden and of Hesse distinctly preferred Prussian leadership.

The most serious element in the history of these two years was the growing hostility of France, and the most important question which was raised and settled was that of Luxemburg. This duchy, ruled by the King of the Netherlands, but constituting no part of his kingdom, had belonged to the German Confederation (1814–1866); but with the dissolution of that confederation it was legally isolated from the rest of Germany. Under the older federal arrangements and with the sanction of the great Powers, Prussia supplied three-fourths of the garrison of the fortress of Luxemburg. In all the schemes of "compensation" suggested by France in the summer of 1866, and described by Von Sybel in his fifth volume, Luxemburg was, of course, included. On the 29th of August, Benedetti had submitted a final proposition. Prussia was to open negotiations with the King of the Netherlands for the cession of Luxemburg to France. An equivalent was to be tendered him either in German territory or in money. If the arrangement was made on the latter basis, France would reimburse Prussia for the outlay. The acquisition of Luxemburg would be regarded by France as a sufficient compensation for the extension of Prussia's power in North Germany. If Prussia would aid France in acquiring Belgium, France would consent to the incorporation of South Germany in the German Federation. For these latter purposes, an offensive and defensive alliance was proposed. Bismarck replied that an offensive alliance between France and Prussia would arouse suspicion throughout Europe. As regarded Luxemburg, Prussia could not possibly offer German territory to the King of the Netherlands, nor could she take the initiative in arranging a purchase, for the transaction would arouse the national feeling and compromise Prussia's position in Germany. If France could settle the matter quietly, without the official knowledge of the Prussian Government, Germany might be persuaded to accept the accomplished fact. The most that Prussia could do would be to withdraw her troops and suffer events to take their course, and to this programme Bismarck would endeavor to obtain his royal master's consent, if a firm friendship with France could thus be cemented.

No further answer was asked or given until December, when Benedetti returned to the attack and demanded a reply to the French proposals of August 29. Bismarck now for the first time submitted these proposals to the King. The King was not favorably impressed; Moltke and Roon, at his request, worked out memorials on the strategic importance of the fortress of Luxemburg, and advocated the maintenance of the Prussian right of garrison. Bismarck declared that the abandonment of the fortress was of course objectionable, but that an immediate outbreak of war with France would be a greater evil. Early in January, 1867, Benedetti pressed again for an answer. The answer that he received (January 10) was substantially that foreshadowed by Bismarck in August. No offensive alliance with France; at most a defensive alliance, with a pledge of Prussian neutrality in case France should undertake offensive operations—no promise even on this point, simply a possibility that the King would consent; no initiative on the part of Prussia in the Luxemburg affair, not even a voluntary withdrawal of her garrison. France would do well to start a popular agitation in Luxemburg for the removal of the Prussian troops, or, best of all, for the demolition of the fortress. Somewhat later Bismarck notified Benedetti that the Prussian garrison would probably be withdrawn if the King of the Netherlands requested its withdrawal.

THE GOLDEN HOUSE, AND OTHER NOVELS.

The Golden House. By Charles Dudley Warner. Harper & Brothers.

John March, Southerner. By George W. Cable. Charles Scribner's Sons.

Children of Circumstance. By Iota. D. Appleton & Co.

The Bell-ringer of Angels, and Other Stories. By Bret Harte. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

The Chase of Saint Castin, and Other Stories. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

EVERY new novel about the rich and fashionable society of New York serves to confirm one of two impressions: either it is the dullest and most purposeless society that ever was on the face of the earth, or the novelists are so far from being in it that their works may be classed properly only as speculations on the vague, the vast, the dazzling unknown. From the first chapter of Mr. Warner's 'Golden House,' elaborately descriptive of a Spanish dancer's dancing before the fashionable world, in a studio, at midnight, it must be inferred that he knows whereof he writes. There is a pronounced flavor of intimacy with luxury in the reflection on "that pleasurable glow which the red Jacqueminot always gets from contiguity with the pale-yellow Clicquot," a perfect familiarity with rare pottery in an instantaneous recognition of a "barbarous pot of Chanak-Kalessi." So on, through all the descriptions of fêtes and functions, clothes and food, both from the minuteness of detail and the absence of that liveliness and humor which characterize most of Mr. Warner's speculative writings, the conviction grows that it is all very knowing and an astonishingly accurate drawing from life. There is too much money in the scene and situations for idle fun, and therefore Mr. Warner, like a good American, has dropped his native pleasantry and assumed polysyllabic solemnity as a fitting tribute to the pomp of the great god Mammon.

Unfortunately, perhaps, we have got into the habit of requiring from a novelist more than a wide acquaintance with external life, and insist, perhaps unreasonably, that he shall reveal the heart of things, or, if they have no heart, of people who, after all, do count even in European palaces or American palatial residences. Tried by this test of actual knowledge or creative imagination, Mr. Warner is disappointing—so disappointing, indeed, that it seems as if any one who wished to write up, or rather write down, fashionable society in a perfectly proper and chaste way might have done as much and could hardly have done less.

An adventurous wit of the last century said she had travelled a good deal and had met only two varieties of the human species—men and women. She died before there was any United States or any New York society, or any phantoms of the same, flitting through finely printed pages and vainly appealing to the illustrator to attest their substantial being by a dozen or more inspiring pictures of correctly clothed backs and legs. Men and women she could not have declared Jack Delancy, or Mr. Mavick, or Mrs. Carmen Henderson, or Miss Tavish to be. All these people are idle, sensuous, self-indulgent, and perhaps the author's failure to represent them at all is accounted for by the way in which he wished to do it—the chaste and proper way. In any other country than America it is recognized that people who persist in skating on thin ice invariably go through, and for novelists of other nations who write about such people the plunge is the natural, the inevitable crisis. It is impossible to believe that a republican form of government can eliminate human passions from human beings and substitute silly social ambitions and calculating self-interest. So when an American author takes immense pains to describe the gyrations of peo-

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

ple on a skimmed pool, then informs us that they all not only slid off triumphantly to solid land, but had never really been in any danger, we cannot help feeling that he is false to fact if he knows, vapid and ineffective if he does not. We are, of course, far from regretting that Mr. Warner has not written an immoral book, but we wish, if he was irresistibly moved to write about pleasure-loving and pleasure-seeking people, that he had seemed to know that their regard for each other does not rest wholly on hopes of points in stocks or invitations to dinner, and that a racketing crowd on a yacht deliberately crossing a steamer's bows is not, when run into, so perfectly cool and self possessed as to avoid all appearance of panic and to display "much less excitement than appeared from telegraphed accounts."

On the Street, among the poor, and at the domestic hearth, the author appears to greater advantage. Mr. Henderson will do for any stock-broker who accumulates millions by questionable deals and corners. The faithful little woman doctor, and in a less complete fashion the Anglican priest, are recognizable figures in the movement of a great modern city. The devoted wife of Jack Delancy is all right, and Mr. Warner's sympathy with her sitting up o' nights touches the core of woman's case against man—that listening for the click of the long-past-midnight latch-key. They order this matter better in Corea—enlightened land!—where men are shut up and only women roam abroad after dark.

In view of the number and variety of figures in the 'Golden House,' it seems clear that Mr. Warner is possessed by the prevalent belief among novelists in the seriousness of their profession, and set himself to include in one volume a comprehensive presentation of life in New York. It takes a large imagination and great constructive skill to give unity, force, value to this comprehensive fiction, and so far no American except Mr. Howells, in many volumes, has come within sight of success. Doubtless, Mr. Cable was animated by the same ambition in the composition of 'John March, Southerner'; at all events, it is soothing to find so worthy an excuse for such a maddening performance. Seventy-eight chapters are ostensibly devoted to John from childhood to maturity, but what he was or is or shall be remains an enigma. John's father, a judge, presumably an old-time Southern gentleman, talking an atrocious dialect, dies in the twenty-third chapter, bequeathing to his son an irrelevant, futile, verse-writing mother, and a great deal of unimproved land. The remaining chapters are presumably intended to develop the methods adopted by John for repressing his mother and colonizing his land, several of them being abandoned to these topics. The incidental information is various and unrelated. John has a tedious love affair, meandering through much talk to a second passion. He gets religion, and also gets rid of it at the penitent bench. He insults the British flag, but does not make an international episode. He is casually engaged in a shooting affray with a mountaineer; the mountaineer is shot, and one wishes it had been John. All the time the inhabitants of Suez, in the State of Dixie (generals, colonels, white women, negroes), keep on talking about the war and each other, apparently trying to display astonishing invention in corrupting the English language. Such fiction as this might have been an invaluable agent for reform in the old days when the novel-reading habit was regarded as pernicious. No boy would hide it under his pillow, hoping to snatch a fearful joy at dawn. No woman would, for love of it, neglect her baby and darning.

The author of the 'Yellow Aster' was marked from the beginning as one whose blood should be on her own head. The folly of her first book was surprising, that of her second, 'Children of Circumstance,' is only dull. The few amusing characters are parsons whose contrivances for mitigating the dulness of their profession are quite ingenious. One diverted his mind from a parishioner's confession of iniquity by thinking of "his dead wife and smelling-salts," also of "a rather red nose and treble squeals nicely modulated." A second demanded for solace in his last hours the ministrations of a young lady of high fashion, who shook up his pillows and even "kissed him in her nice, pleasant way." A third relieved the tedium of a district visitor's homily by "watching her face with a sort of irreverent pity—wondering if any one outside a near relative ever had had the courage to kiss her." This parson, Frank Weston, ardently supports the heroine, Miss Dering, in her scheme for redeeming the prostitutes of London by dwelling among them and initiating for their salvation midnight suppers of beef and beer. He tries to rope in his sister, Rica (the young person who kissed the dying curate), but she demands, in the name of Heaven, to know how many whiskey-and-sodas he consumes while writing a sermon; which seems to dispose of her as a means of grace.

It has naturally never occurred to the author that social evils won't yield to the homœopathic cure of like by like. She, therefore, chooses for redeemer-in-chief a young woman who maintains that when a married man makes love to a girl, the only sinner is the wife who has feebly let her husband go—a sentiment not inconsistently cherished by one who, meditating on David, "feels herself hoping that he had a good time with Bathsheba, and wishing, half reluctantly, that it hadn't been cut short quite so soon." The feeling of *camaraderie* which Miss Dering established between herself and her chosen sinners is not a matter for wonder; and when one remembers how, at the suppers, they could watch for nothing "Margaret's small, delicate, ever-varying face cutting pork for her guests' excellent appetites," the marvel is that they ever let such a congenial and phenomenal saviour depart from among them. Cheap irreverence and flippant contempt of decency paraded as liberal thought and worldly wisdom will command an audience for a brief space, amusing many, deceiving a few. The "Children of Circumstance" neither distract nor delude. They forget that too much of a bad thing is as tiresome as too much of a good one, and by loquacious protestation of their thorough-going shockingness fail even to score a shock.

It is several years since Bret Harte has given us such good stories as two at least of those included in the 'Bell-ringer of Angels.' The incidents of the title-story and of the "Sheriff of Siskyou" are very clearly seen, and the characterization has the author's youthful humor and decision. The only falling off from his high standard of excellence is in the ending of both; all that follows Madison Wayne's realization of his crime in the first is unnecessary, and the wanderings through the fire of the Sheriff and his captive, in the second, are unduly prolonged. The rest of the volume is readable, and the sketch of Mr. Callender shows that the author has not been consul in Glasgow for nothing.

In the 'Chase of Saint Castin' Mrs. Catherwood continues her fictitious rendering of incidents of the early French settlement of Canada. It is rather strange that an author who chooses to write historical fiction exclusively should ignore a rule almost invariably observed by distinguished laborers in the same vineyard, and select for her principal figures men to whose actual renown imagination can add nothing. Fortunately for Mrs. Catherwood, the deeds of Saint Castin, of the Le Moynes and La Tours are not too widely known, and the wit and wickedness of the real Baron La Hontan are shut up in a thick little book which, we think, has not had an edition in this century. Therefore her representations of such splendid adventurers may not appear to the general tame and frigid. The selection of episodes in this volume is discriminating, and each is well enough told to hold the attention. Still, the people are so thin, so cold, so far off, that they impart an unveracious air even to authenticated accounts of the events which they shared.

NEW HANDBOOKS OF BOTANY.

In the history of science there occur at irregular intervals well-marked text-book periods of uncertain duration. Sometimes these periods are coincident with inactivity in investigation, but more commonly they mark a change in the direction of investigation. They are chiefly interesting to workers in other fields and to the general public from the fact that a text-book, if it is worth anything at all, is an account of stock on hand. A very sudden accumulation of text-books would seem, therefore, to indicate that a good many authors, not to say authorities, have concluded simultaneously that it is time to look over the results of investigation and take a fresh start. In botany such a time has again come. Many investigations in this science are being prosecuted and new ones are projected, but some of the leading investigators have given us, in a compendious form, the results of what has been done of late. In view of the numerous, almost numberless, text-books published within a year or two, it may be instructive to examine a few of the steps by which new and apparently uncontested positions have been attained, confining this chiefly within the limits imposed by the text-books themselves.

In the first place, it appears to be settled that the protoplasm or living matter in the cells of plants is practically continuous throughout the whole organism. It is recognized that the cell-walls do not shut off communication between contiguous cells. In the walls themselves extremely tenuous lines of protoplasm exist as intercommunicating threads, and these bring all the protoplasm in a given plant into a connected whole. At the approach of autumn, the protoplasm in the perishable parts of a perennial is withdrawn into the permanent parts of the organism, and here it stands ready for the coming of spring and the outburst of new foliage. All this, which is comparatively new, has been promptly incorporated into the text-books. But now arises a very singular exception, which serves to indicate how remarkable is this provision of vegetable economy. The well-known breathing-pores, or stomata, of foliage and other green parts consist of delicately balanced valves which stand in strict relations to their surroundings, and, in short, open and shut according to the needs of the plant. But the side cells of these balanced valves are now demonstrated to maintain no protoplasmic connection with their nearest neighbors, but are, after the first

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

period of their existence, cut off from them and then are independent. And at the end of the vegetine year, when all the rest of the leaf-protoplasm is taken back into the plant for protection, that which exists in these side cells remains as if a veritable rear-guard, performing some duty while the living matter in the neighboring cells is safely retreating, and, after all the rest is under winter cover, perishes with the fallen leaf.

In the next place, it is now generally admitted that the changes which take place in the nucleus of cells during cell-division, are substantially identical with those which occur in cell-division in animals. The newer text-books have placed within reach, even of beginners, methods by which the more important of the changes can be traced throughout their course. Any intelligent student now has it quite within his power to repeat the observations in this interesting field. The fulness and perspicuity of the directions which are found in the best of these recent text-books in regard to this matter leave practically nothing to be desired in the way of technique and guidance. The same may be said, also, of the advice and the minor hints in respect to the demonstration of the so-called plastids. These minute granules, enclosed in protoplasm, although springing from a common source, are of three different classes. According to their development and office, they become of a green color and undertake the preparation of organic matter from inorganic, or they serve as colorless points around which the prepared food (starch) accumulates and is stored, or lastly, taking on some color other than green, become of protective or attractive service in flower or fruit. That is, these constituents of cells, though alike at the beginning, are turned to different kinds of work.

And here we have the key to all of the modern text-books in botany. The pregnant thought which finds its expression in the reference of all parts of a flowering plant to a few simple morphological members which are turned to multifarious ends in the work of the organism, is now applied unhesitatingly to the tissues and to the vital constituents of the cells. It is, in fact, adaptation in its widest sense. Prominence is given to every element of structure and every phenomenon which can throw any light on the adaptation of the organism to its surroundings. The structure of the plant is regarded as the product of two factors, inheritance and environment; whether the latter merely picks out the fittest or aids in shaping them is, as yet, fair matter for discussion, and hence is kept somewhat in the background, but the fertile ideas of morphology and adaptation are, as is proper, made much of in every way.

Taken for all in all, the most interesting of these recent text-books is a skilfully constructed composite which we owe to the botanical instructors at Bonn on the Rhine ('Lehrbuch der Botanik.' Jena: Gustav Fischer). Prof. Strasburger, widely known as the highest authority in cellular morphology of plants, contributes 130 pages of histology and its relations to external structure. The most recondite matters are made clear; the driest are invested with attractiveness. Dr. Noll follows with the subject of physiology, presenting the principal facts accepted by the best authorities, and suggesting decisive experiments for the use of the student. The field of special systematic botany is divided between Dr. Schenck and Prof. Schimper, the former taking up the lower plants, the latter the flowering. The text is succinct and comprehensive, and in style attractive. When we add that the figures are fresh and telling and well executed, and that the volume, as it comes to us from the German press, is of a high order of book-printing, we have said enough to carry the work into the hands of some besides botanists who wish to see the results of recent investigation coördinated with the older accepted statements, and all presented in the form of a trial balance.

No less than twelve new text-books besides the above are in hand for notice. Nearly all are useful, and some are highly creditable. Of these, we must be permitted to speak of Francis Darwin's 'Practical Physiology of Plants' (Cambridge [Eng.]: University Press: New York: Macmillan), and Prof. Spalding's 'Guide to the Study of Common Plants' (Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.). In the former we have two series of problems which are thought to be within the grasp of a student who has mastered elementary work. Experiments are suggested which, in their turn, must suggest new lines of research. The treatise possesses high merit. Prof. Spalding's excellent work makes use of the best form of the type-method. The student is given good examples illustrating the life-history of representative plants. Just enough information is presented to the student to stimulate his curiosity and keep him well up to his task. Pedagogically considered, this is one of the best contributions to the subject of elementary teaching which we now possess.

Brook Farm: Historic and Personal Memoirs. By John Thomas Codman. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. 1894.

Because of the character and standing of certain people connected more or less intimately with Brook Farm, it has had an interest for the public out of all proportion to the social or the economic principles that it involved. From the social or economic standpoint the North American Phalanx at Red Bank, N. J., was an experiment of much more importance, yet it has attracted no such persistent reminiscence on the part of those engaged in it—Horace Greeley the best known; no such persistent curiosity of the outside world. But the fame of Brook Farm is much less on account of its resident Farmers than on account of its casual visitors—Emerson, Parker, Alcott, Margaret Fuller, and others—and the most of these had lost even their casual interest in the enterprise before Mr. Codman, its latest historian, arrived upon the scene. The most distinguished residents of his time were Ripley, Dwight, and Dana, all of whom are described in an effusive manner—Ripley with "damnable iteration." It begins to look as if we never should have a good account of Brook Farm written from the inside. We shall have to content ourselves with such admirable fragments as Mr. Curtis's "Easy Chair" papers and Mr. George P. Bradford's *Century* article. To these Mr. Codman's volume adds little of importance. When some one asked Ripley when he was going to write the history of Brook Farm, he answered, "When I reach my years of indiscretion." He did not live long enough for that. Mr. Codman has been less fortunate, and consequently he has given us a book which, while adding little to our knowledge of Brook Farm, adds nothing to its fascination, and does little credit to the author's judgment, taste, or skill.

At the outset he is unfortunate, for his arrival at the Farm was in 1843, when its idyllic period was fast drawing to a close, under the stress of Albert Brisbane and his Fourierite doctrine. It has been very common for those devoted to the experiment in its earlier stages to depreciate the later, when the organization became much more definite. It is certain that this change, with its partial substitution of a Fourierite phalanstery for a group of free individuals, did much to alienate the sympathy of those, excepting Ripley, who have always given to the Farm its happiest repute. Mr. Codman's book has the advantage of being a counterblast to the prevailing notions. His stay was under the Fourierite dispensation, and he will not allow that there was any falling off from the generous and lofty idealism of the earlier time. But here we have the personal equation: the Fourierite time was *the* time because it was *his* time. Of the other he had no personal knowledge. Of his own exuberant happiness we get an adequate impression. Why not? He was young, in good health, full of animal spirits, could laugh at any joke, however poor, and the opportunities for love-making were unbounded. Whatever stopped in 1843, the "perpetual picnic" of Emerson's impression went on for two years longer if not until the end.

Mr. Codman's book suffers from the indefiniteness of its form, the looseness and carelessness of its expression. Mr. Frothingham's ninety pages in his Life of Ripley give us a much clearer notion of the character of the enterprise and the sequence of events. The account of the Transcendental Club, a forerunner of Brook Farm, is inaccurate in various particulars. It never called itself by its popular name, as Mr. Codman asserts. Dr. Channing attended only one of its meetings, yet he is set down as habitually present and as "afterwards one of the acknowledged leaders of liberal Christendom." In 1835 he had held that position preëminently for some twenty years. We have everywhere the same easy-going style. Hood's "Song of the Shirt" appears to be spoken of as an original contribution to the *Harbinger*, the organ of the Farm, to which a chapter is assigned that contains much irrelevant matter. The chronology is so extremely defective that in vain do we try to follow the order of events. But the worst defect of Mr. Codman's book is its excess of sweetness, its sentimentality, its gush, its ravings over the eyes and hair of this or that glorious creature who captivated his boyish fancy. And, besides this, we suffer much from his own humor and from his memory of the poor little jokes that should have had their day and ceased to be some fifty years ago.

There is a pretty full account of an address by Albert Brisbane on the "Unity of the Passions." It was prodigious fine talk, and one hopes it meant something when, at the conclusion, he flung his arms aloft to the stars and cried, "I *love* those worlds up there." Charles A. Dana followed with the sentiment, "Ambition the greatest of the four social passions." "The four social passions," it seems, "correspond to the common chord in music, but ambition corresponds to the seventh note, on which no music ever ends." John S. Dwight on the same occasion gave "one of those sweet, calm, choice, dignified, exact speeches for which he is noted." But he too could soar into the empyrean, as where he said of Bailey's "Festus," once an immortal poem, that "you might as well cut a cloud out of the purple sunset atmosphere as a figure from the boundless atmospheric beauty of the poem." How touching the simplicity when William Henry Channing asks them all to "join hands and make a circle, and here form the Church of Humanity that shall cover the men and women of every nation

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

and every clime." Truly here were "great hopes for great souls."

If the community did not have all things in common, it had the smallpox. Some reformer, abjuring vaccination, came, bringing his little boy, who was much fondled, and in a few days there were thirty down with the disease. Isolation was impossible and everybody took his chance. It is Mr. Codman's impression that the harmonious conditions did much to neutralize the danger. And there were compensations. The visitors at the rate of four thousand a year dropped to the zero point. A far greater calamity was the burning of the new unfinished Phalanstery, on which $7,000 had been expended, and there was no insurance. This was really the beginning of the end. "The Hive" became a sieve. It was resolved that the blow should make no difference. It made a great difference. Dwight went to New York, leaving everything cheerful and happy; he came back to find everything going to the bad. Mr. Codman does not give us the particulars of the breaking up. He says:

"It was not discord, it was music stopped."

That is prettily said, but it does not agree with Dwight's impression, and he was a musical authority. The scheme was a complete financial failure. August 18, 1847, the Farm was transferred to a board of trustees to be sold to the best advantage of all concerned. Applying Thoreau's standard, Ripley's failure was so tragical that you could not tell it from success.

Logic. By Dr. Christoph Sigwart. Second edition, revised and enlarged. Translated by Helen Dendy. 2 vols. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1895. 8vo.

THE second edition of Sigwart's Logic was substantially a new book; at least, it seemed quite fresh at its appearance a few years ago. The opinions expressed in it are recognized as among the sanest and best-considered. But whether it is a particularly suitable book for translation is not quite so clear. It is to be remembered that no very extensive or important part of logic stands accepted without dispute on all hands. Nor are the differences confined to points of theory and arrangement; on the contrary, they are practically decisive as to what inference is to be commended, what rejected, as well as for methods of inquiry. Beginners in the study of logic certainly ought to be apprised of the more important divergences. Most logicians when they approach a disputed doctrine exhibit manifest symptoms of it. Even if they name nobody, the breath comes quick, and the glare of the eyes is reflected in the type. But Sigwart goes on his way with such calm serenity, giving his own lucid and, to an advanced scholar, luminous views, that the young student would never dream that anybody else ever thought otherwise.

Since the author quite omits, or treats with strictest compression, all those parts of logic about which there is no dispute, one might wonder how two goodly volumes of a thousand pages of four hundred words to the page have been filled up. They contain chiefly the *ex-parte* presentation of Sigwart-ish views, very well worth reading certainly. This is enlarged by a great deal of acute criticism on points of little importance, many of them not truly relevant to logic. Many topics, although subjects of divergent opinions, are passed by without mention.

Historical statements are sparingly made; and of the few, there is a considerable proportion that cannot support criticism. Thus, Sigwart (vol. ii, p. 308, foot-note) attributes to Jevons the remark that induction is an inverse operation (mistranslated a "reverse operation"), related to deduction as division is related to multiplication. But this had been said long before Jevons's day. Indeed, the moment deduction is regarded as a mathematical operation, it follows from Aristotle's conception of induction that this is the inverse operation. The assimilation was made by Leibnitz, and was expanded into two eloquent volumes by Père Gratry. Indeed, the latter writer apprehends it more accurately than either Jevons or Sigwart, for he shows that mathematical differentiation, depending on the inverse operation of subtraction, while integration depends on the direct operation of summation, is in that sense an inverse operation, and he defends the older opinion that differentiation is the instrument of inductive reasoning, integration that of deductive reasoning. Thus the laws of mechanics are expressed by differential equations, and the applications of them are performed by integrating those equations.

Sigwart treats logic chiefly from the point of view of methodology. From that standpoint probability and probable inference appear as its most prominent topics. These are subjects upon which we cannot expect a German treatise to attain the English standard of accuracy and subtlety of thought, for two generations of the most powerful minds the English-speaking countries have produced have had them constantly under scrutiny, while in Germany they have been little studied. Sigwart's account of the philosophy of probability is inferior even to that of Locke. Take this sentence: "F. A. Lange rightly saw that the theory of probability is based upon the disjunctive judgment, and is in this way connected with logic." This is hardly doing justice to that able thinker. But, passing that by, very long before Lange every English logician had seen, what must appear early in one's reflections upon the subject, that the theory of probability is not only "connected with," but is a part of, logic—one might almost say is the major part of it. The pedantry of supposing that "the disjunctive judgment" can shed a vivifying light upon the philosophy of probability is deplorable, while it provokes a smile.

Yet upon subjects closely connected with this Sigwart is most instructive. We will select by way of illustration a point which shows at the same time how near the abstract theory of logic may come to matters of practical concern. Our readers will understand that we are expressing no opinions whatever concerning the subject-matter; we intend only to point out how divergent theory may lead to divergent practice. Sigwart remarks that when we investigate anything whatever, we go upon the presumption that the truth about the matter in hand is capable of being expressed in general terms, and further that the proposition that events happen according to laws and are determined by causes is a special case of such presumption. No proof, he says, of the impossibility of a lawless happening has ever been brought forward, and thus he is led to hold that such postulates are "not so much laws which the understanding prescribes to Nature" (which was Kant's opinion), "as laws which the understanding lays down for its own regulation in its investigation and consideration of Nature." Correct or not, this is a pregnant suggestion. In modern whist there are certain presumptions, especially towards the end of a hand, which we make, not because we possess any evidence of their truth, but because if such a proposition be true, there is a way of winning a trick that, under the supposition of its falsity, there is no way of winning. This is the sort of presumptions which German logicians call "regulative principles." Now it is plain that such a regulative principle cannot, *as such*, be universal, because it applies in that capacity only to the single case in hand. If, then, Sigwart be right in holding the law of causation, the principle of the uniformity of nature and the like to be "regulative principles," all ground for asserting them to be absolutely without exception is removed. Now that would profoundly modify not only our theory of the universe, but also our philosophy of life and death. All this would or might come from a particular answer to an abstract, obscure, and apparently insignificant question of pure logic. When we turn over the pages of such a book as that before us, we may be tempted to wonder of what use or application is all that. But it is always possible there is a "live coal behind the thought" that long blown on may some day flame. The instance adduced shows the possibility of this.

The translator writes an easy un-German English, and the accuracy of the rendering is vouched for by the author, who has read all the proofs. Nevertheless mistakes are to be found in it.

From a New England Hillside. By William Potts. Macmillan. 1895.

FARMINGTON, in Connecticut, is one of our loveliest villages. North and south stretches Farmington mountain, ten miles and more long, separating the valley of the Connecticut from the valley in which lay the old canal upon whose bed the New Haven & Northampton Railroad (called originally Canal Railroad) was afterwards built. The mountain is not very high, but is full of picturesque variety of surface, even attaining Alpine dignity of bare, scarped cliffs and jutting crags. West of the high ground stretch the meadows where the Pequabuck meets the Tunxis, and in which the united stream winds in large, slow curves like the lower Connecticut or the Mississippi. The village lies along the western slope of the mountain, with a broad village street two miles long, and also, for it is a big village, a "back lane" further up the hillside, and a river street down on the plain. From all points in the village there are lovely views, and the prospect from the higher slopes is wide and singularly beautiful. The village is very old, in appearance at least. The houses are generally of the eighteenth century, or of years before 1820. Among them are handsome and stately residences, for Farmington was a wealthy town in the days of New England farming. The old village church, unaltered without, though the interior has been spoiled, is famous through all that region. The streets are planted with noble elms, among which are two of the dozen monsters of New England. The railroad station is two miles away, and there are no factories, no great workshops, no crowding in of city people in summer. A year hence these words will not be true, for the trolley-road has invaded the quiet village, and one more place of rest is about to be destroyed.

In this retreat Mr. William Potts has made himself a home, and thence he has written letters to a New England newspaper, which letters are now gathered into a little volume

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

with the title given above. The author, well known for his activity in the cause of civil-service reform, looks for rest and a relief from his labors in this hillside quiet. His book does not show much interest in the exceptional beauty of the spot and of its neighborhood; he dwells mainly upon the planting, the well-digging, the gardening, in the spirit of those gentle essays familiar to the readers of American prose literature. Printed one by one in the columns of a newspaper, these letters were more readable than as parts of a volume. When one takes book in hand, one expects more substantial food for the mind. The free use of quotations has rather the appearance of a substitute for the thoughts that would not flow freely than of a clincher for thoughts that had already been driven home. It is a relief to come upon the author's meditations over riotous strikers (p. 189), and the sound conclusions that the first principle upon which society rests must be defended against them. Even the half-despondng words which follow, with the inevitable vision of a hideous world to come upon this planet, is a relief from the commonplace. The reader who knows his picturesque New England longs for a little more of it between these covers, and thinks regretfully that Mr. Potts has missed a chance.

Trans-Caspia: The Sealed Provinces of the Tsar. By M. M. Shoemaker. Cincinnati: Robert Clarke Co. 1894.

WILL the time never come when the traveller who has made a flying trip to some more or less remote part of the world will realize that the only thing for him to relate to the public is his own experience, together with such few facts as he may be certain of, from all of which he can draw but the most modest conclusions? Imagine an American, obviously ignorant of the Russian language as well as of the real conditions of the empire, of the circumstances that have caused its peculiar development, the reasons for the nature of its government, and the problems which the Government has to confront; then let him spend a few weeks in central Asia, and in consequence write a book full of superficial observations and opinions besides occasional gross errors, and we have Mr. Shoemaker's work. He is not to blame if his travels were commonplace. Illness forced him to turn back just as he was beginning the more difficult part of his trip. Still, he made an interesting journey which he had as good a right to describe as had the numerous other writers who have made it. If he had confined himself to this we should have found less fault, merely pointing out the absurdity of such statements as that in St. Petersburg, in winter, "The islands are, of course, closed, most of the bridges over the Neva being taken away until the ice goes out in April," whereas the islands are the most famous of St. Petersburg winter resorts, and the floating bridges are taken away only when the ice forms or is breaking up, to be restored a few days later. Or, again, though we fully recognize the difficulty of transcribing Russian names, it is not sufficient to give them as each person fancies they are pronounced, on the ground that "it would, in fact, be impossible to do otherwise" (p. 240). Half an hour's study of the alphabet would have done much to remove this impossibility, and would have perhaps prevented the three cases of impossible spelling in the table of contents alone. To be sure, names in other languages fare little better. Bonvalot is on page 146 printed Bouvalot, Curzon invariably Cruzon.

We repeat, however, that these are not the chief defects we find in the author. What we object to far more is ignorant generalizations, and his peevish criticisms whenever he meets with an annoyance. Witness his wrath that the small bank in Samarkand would not cash his letter of credit, on which it was not mentioned. This causes him to declare that "it would almost seem that if Russia did not make the life of her people as hard, horrible, and inconvenient as possible, she would fear the total wreck of her empire" (p. 151). The same spirit inspires the remark, "If Russia did not want us to come, she should have said so at St. Petersburg and ended the matter there," and the appreciative reflection on an invitation to dine with the Governor-General of Turkestan, that, "with the breath of the outside world which we brought into the dead monotony of his household, we amply repaid him for his courtesy" (p. 181). We can assure our author, too, from personal experience, that it is not true that all strangers, or even all Americans, arriving at Samarkand "are subjected to almost an autopsy on arrival, in order to satisfy these servants of the Czar that their internal construction does not hold something that may be prejudicial to the interests of that potentate" (p. 123). In short, Mr. Shoemaker's book contains nothing that is new, and we bring away from it an impression of faults of grammar and taste, and of petty complaints and foolish remarks about Russia, full of nonsense about the Czar and Czardom.

John Bull & Co.: The great Colonial Branches of the firm—Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa. By Max O'Rell. New York: Charles L. Webster & Co. 1894.

WE always read Max O'Rell's "impressions" with pleasure, because, whatever else he is, he is never dull—not even now that he has, as he tells us, "delivered four hundred and forty-six public lectures in the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, and South Africa, under the direction of Major Pond in America and Mr. Robert S. Smythe in the Colonies." With his quick eye for character and his thoroughly French wit, he stands by himself as an observer, and to us he often seems a better one than many a profounder and more thoughtful critic. This present volume gives an account of some of the countries in which he lectured for two years, and if it is not as good as 'John Bull and his Island,' it is partly because the countries themselves are not so interesting; as he says himself, a new country cannot be as interesting as an old one.

Max O'Rell's impressions relate entirely to the Anglo-Saxon world. He tells us that he neither speaks nor understands German, and is "foolish enough to boast of it," but of the English-speaking world he writes with some authority. The English character evidently has a fascination for him, and the British empire he rightly regards as one of the most astonishing achievements in the art of government that the world has ever seen. Whether or no he labors under the impression, from which no Frenchman ever frees himself without great difficulty, that the English empire has been built up as the result of a carefully prepared scheme of foreign aggrandizement, deliberately acted upon by a succession of ministries for generations, we do not quite make out. Nothing is clearer, of course, than that a very great part of her empire has come to England as the result of chance rather than design, and that there has been an absolute lack of any common or continuous purpose of foreign aggrandizement. The conception of John Bull as a powerful, scheming villain, whose plan is, and always has been, to get possession of his neighbor's lands and chattels, is thoroughly French, and is one of the things which embitter the discussion of all their differences with England to a degree difficult for any one not a Frenchman to comprehend. But, whatever his secret opinion may be, Max O'Rell is altogether too clever to involve himself in controversy on this subject. No matter what the British empire is, or how it was got together, his business is simply to see and report what it is, and for many reasons the report of a Frenchman as intelligent as he throws a new light upon it.

'John Bull & Co.' is a very amusing book, and, on the whole, no one is likely to get more amusement out of it than an Englishman.

London and the Kingdom. By Reginald R. Sharpe, D.C.L., Records Clerk in the Office of the Town Clerk of the City of London. In three volumes. Vols. I. and II. Printed by order of the Corporation. Longmans, Green & Co.

THE historical student has often to thank the chances of current politics for the publication of valuable material; and he has, almost as often, to regret that preoccupation with current politics has prevented the material from being presented in quite as useful a form as he could wish. The cluster of wealthy and dignified persons who govern the little historical centre to which alone belongs in strictness the name of the City of London, has been greatly exercised, and very naturally, by the proposals of the London County Council, which rules the great area all around, for a "unification of London." In their anxiety, they have wished to reassure themselves, and to impress the outside world, by the recital of all the great and good things the corporation has done in the past; and accordingly, in 1889, they instructed Dr. Sharpe, their Records Clerk, to prepare a work "showing the preëminent position occupied by the City of London, and the important function it exercised in the shaping and making of England." The result so far is these two sturdy volumes: one, of 566 pages, coming down to 1603, the other, of 650 pages, stretching from 1603 to 1714.

The humble scholar will be moderately thankful. The foot-notes reveal sources of information to which he can have recourse. The volumes are intelligent journey-work, scholarly, moving with complacent jog-trot from year to year; and so far as we can test the statements they seem trustworthy. There are, indeed, slips from time to time—as where, on the second page, Bede's "multorum emporium populorum" is turned into "Emporium of the World"; and we cannot say we altogether trust the author's critical acumen. Still, it is a good and substantial performance—of its kind. But there's the rub! The book was, of course, intended by its patrons to be a eulogy of London. Fortunately Dr. Sharpe is too good a scholar, and unfortunately he is too little of a man of letters, either to fall to the depths or rise to the heights which such a programme might have suggested. To represent London as "shaping and making" for eight long centuries, and never as misshaping—that London which, as Dr. Stubbs says, was "sometimes the brain, often the purse, but never the heart of England"—was beyond him; and so he fell back on bare statements of fact, reliable enough, but very dull.

Perhaps a voice from across the Atlantic

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED

may penetrate even the Common Council of the City of London. We would urge upon it that it is high time that the city set about the establishment of an adequate department of Archives; that Dr. Sharpe has shown by his *Calendar of Wills* that he is quite competent to tell them what the work of a city archivist ought to be; and that if they will realize their duty in this regard, they will win the respect of scholars—allies not to be despised even in this democratic age.

L'Histoire Ancienne des Peuples de l'Orient. Tome 1. Les Origines: Égypte et Chaldée. Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern. 8vo. 1894.

The Dawn of Civilization: Egypt and Chaldea. By G. Maspero, Member of the Institute and Professor at the College of France. Edited by A. H. Sayce, Professor of Assyriology, Oxford. Translated by M. L. McClure, Member of the Committee of the Egypt Exploration Fund. With maps and over 470 illustrations and plans. D. Appleton & Co. 1894. Large 8vo, pp. xii, 800.

THE two tasks which Prof. Maspero has undertaken in this first volume of what will be a monumental work, are very different. In the case of Egypt the material is supposed to be quite accessible and well known; in the case of Assyria and Babylon it is only partly unearthed, and none of it lies open to the casual gaze of the tourist. The former task relates to a land of pleasure-seekers and excursionists; the latter to a land where the Occidental seldom goes except on a special mission armed with a Turkish firman instead of a Cook's ticket. In either case the "*origines*" are shrouded in mystery—confessedly so in the second instance, and far more so in the first than is generally supposed. The civilization of the Nile as it is first revealed to us in monumental remains is full-blown and perfect in many respects. That of the Euphrates is discovered only after long study and patient investigation. Its growth may be traced more in detail than the other, and the student has merely to piece together the fragments that his industry discovers. The difference in the case of Egypt is scarcely credible. Myths concerning the gods and their doings have in a very few cases been preserved in fairly full shape, but for the most part we are left to infer the details from fragmentary statements and occasional phrases imbedded in religious texts. History does not begin even with the earliest reputed human king, but later generations wove legends about his venerated name and the names of his successors. Then suddenly the fourth Egyptian dynasty appears, like Minerva, full-grown and panoplied, upon the field. To explain the apparition of a civilization in which were order, government, classes of society, arts, industry, such as are here revealed is a task still unsolved. A society which couched its thoughts in an alphabetic writing, and which showed such a degree of artistic skill in delineating the characters in stone, must have been preceded by a long course of development somewhere and somehow. But here the author, like any other man, stands in expectant attitude, only able to postulate several thousand years of antecedent growth. No more than any other can he tell where its seat was or where its memorials are.

The problem is, likely enough, insoluble. Whence came this wonderful people? Whence came their ability to cut the hardest rocks and to inscribe on them the most delicate hieroglyphs? Whence did they derive their language and their graphic system, which still well-nigh defies the efforts of the decipherer? To these questions only half-answers can be given. In the nature of the case, satisfactory replies cannot be expected, and Prof. Maspero does not essay the task. His purpose is to collect those things that are known and to set them forth. He does not theorize and insist dogmatically on his theory. He presents the facts that are known and lets them speak for themselves. He hints that an unexpected turn of the explorer's spade may reveal clues at any moment, but as yet we are largely working in the dark. The duty of the hour is the preservation of that which is exposed to the destruction wrought by vandals, native or imported. Systematic excavation and search are things of the future, and even then they may prove unavailing. The earth has swallowed up the traces of the original dwellers on the Nile, and only Petrie has attempted to follow their course and to discover their descent. In passing, it may be remarked that it is strange that Maspero does not seem to have given to the results achieved by the explorer of Koptos and Medum the credit which is their due. Diversities in prehistoric burial customs and specimens of non-Egyptian art found on Egyptian soil would appear preëminently to belong to the "*origines*," and they should have found a place in these pages; but our search for them has been in vain. It may also be remarked that the author still holds, apparently, to his former notion touching a prehistoric origin of the great sphinx of Gizeh, unaffected by Petrie's cogent reasons for placing it much later.

The work of Maspero, as noted above, has been planned for the most part along the lines of actual knowledge. He takes up the myths and the earliest remains, and out of them he weaves a connected story. The land and its peculiarities, the gods and their attributes, the mythical beings who ruled Egypt in the ages of the demigods, the early kings of pre-monumental times, the consolidation (or rather the consolidated form) of government and society as the earliest extant monuments exhibit them, the period of decay which followed the sixth dynasty, and the brilliant period of the twelfth dynasty, when the bounds of the dominion of the Pharaohs were extended to include nearly the whole of the region within which the Nile was one river without tributary or branch—these form the theme of the portion of his work that relates to Egypt. The treatment is thus partly historical and partly archæological. In the case of Assyria and Babylonia, the treatment is mainly of an archæological character. There are no such fundamentally perplexing problems as those noted above. For instance, the development of the cuneiform system of writing may be traced from the hieroglyphic picture to the wedge, but the beauty of the Egyptian hieroglyphs was as great, perhaps greater, in the first period as ever after, and in phonetic power they remained practically unchanged through all time. Questions regarding the "Akkadians" and the "Sumerians" may have been perplexing, but they are nothing as compared with those that are presented by a ready-made and full-grown civilization. But if the problems were as perplexing, we should not expect a specialist in another department to go into them at length. In the earlier and larger portion of the volume the author is thoroughly at home and is an acknowledged authority. In the latter he is a compiler of other men's results. His text is unencumbered with the details that delight the heart of the scholar and are so detestable to the "ordinary reader"; the details are in the notes which abound on every page.

The translator has introduced some changes into the English edition, but he has not gone as far as he might The general map including both countries is valuable, and the index is a most worthy addition. One can only regret that it was not made more exhaustive and thorough: the notes and authors' names are entirely neglected. In conclusion it may be said that the work itself is one of the most noteworthy contributions that have been made to the subject in many years, full and wonderfully inclusive. The severest criticism that one is inclined to pass upon it concerns a certain diffuseness of style that has considerably increased its size.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Bailey, Harriet M. On the Chafing-Dish. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Ballantine, Henry. On India's Frontier; or, Nepal. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $2 50.
Bamberger, Ludwig. Politische Schriften von 1848 bis 1868. Berlin: Rosenbaum & Hart.
Bedlow, Henry. The White Tsar, and Other Poems. Illustrated. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $3.50.
Bennett, Prof. C. E. A Latin Grammar. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 80 cents.
Billings, Dr. J. S., and Hurd, Dr. H. M. Suggestions to Hospital and Asylum Visitors. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Colvin, Sir Auckland. John Russell Colvin. [Rulers of India.] Macmillan. 60 cents.
Dumas, Alexandre. La Poudre de Soissons. Longmans, Green & Co. 40 cents.
Fletcher, J. S. The Wonderful Wapentake. Illustrated. London: John Lane; Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $2.
Greene, F. D. The Armenian Crisis in Turkey. Putnams. $1.
Henty, G. A. Dorothy's Double. Rand, McNally & Co. 75 cents.
Heysinger, L. W. The Source and Mode of Solar Energy throughout the Universe. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Howe, Rev. R. H. Quadragesima: Thoughts for Each Sunday in Lent. Whittaker. $1.
How to Govern Chicago. Chicago: C. H. Kerr & Co.
Hume, Fergus. The Lone Inn. Cassell. 50 cents.
Jones, H. S. Select Passages from Ancient Writers illustrative of the History of Greek Sculpture. Macmillan. $2.25.
King, Dr. C. R. Life and Correspondence of Rufus King. Vol. II., 1795—1799. Putnams.
Knapp, Adeline. One Thousand Dollars a Day: Studies in Practical Economics. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co
Labiche, E., and Martin, E. La Poudre aux Yeux. Maynard, Merrill & Co.
Macaulay, G. C. The Chronicles of Froissart. [Globe Edition.] Macmillan. $1.25.
Marryat, Capt. Japhet in Search of a Father. Macmillan. $1.25.
McLaughlin, J. M., and Veazie, G. A. The Advanced Fourth Music Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.05.
Meredith, George. The Tale of Chloe, etc. Ward, Lock & Bowden.
Milton, John. L'Allegro, and Other Poems. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15 cents.
Morrison, Arthur. Martin Hewitt, Investigator. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Muir, M. M. P. Tables and Directions for the Qualitative Chemical Analysis of Moderately Complex Mixtures of Salts. Longmans, Green & Co. 50 cents.
Nernst, Prof. Walter. Theoretical Chemistry. Macmillan. $5.
Never! Social Handbook. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Nevius, Rev. J. L. Demon Possession and Allied Themes. F. H. Revell Co. $1 50.
Partridge, W. O. Technique of Sculpture. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.10.
Phillips, Maurice. The Teaching of the Vedas. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Postgate, J. P. Corpus Poetarum Latinorum. Fasc. I. and II. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan.
Scott, Sir W. Anne of Geierstein. 2 vols. Fair Maid of Perth. 2 vols Woodstock. 2 vols. [International Edition.] Boston: Estes & Lauriat; New York: Bryan & Taylor Co.
Scudder, J. W. First Latin Reader. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 90 cents.
Sephton, J. The Saga of King Olaf Tryggwason. London: Nutt: New York: Macmillan. $5.
Sheffield, Charles A. The History of Florence, Mass. Florence, Mass.: The Author. $2.50.
Sheldon, W. L. Story of the Life of Jesus for the Young, Told from an Ethical Standpoint. Philadelphia: S. B. Weston 50 cents.
Smollett, Tobias. Peregrine Pickle. 2 vols. Illustrated. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Smollett, Tobias. Roderick Random. Illustrated. London: Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.
Solovyoff, V. S. A Modern Priestess of Isis. Longmans, Green & Co. $2.
Sutton, Ada L. Lingua Gemmæ: A Cycle of Gems. Merriam Co. $1.50.
Tolman, W. H. Municipal Reform Movements. F. H. Revell Co. $1.
Vachell, H. A. Judge Ketchum's Romance. J. Selwin Tait & Sons. $1.
Viollet-Le-Duc, M. E. Rational Building. Macmillan. $3.00.
Waggaman, Prof. Samuel. A Compendium of Botanic Materia Medica. Revised and corrected ed. Washington: W. H. Lowdermilk & Co. $2.
We Three and Troddles. Philadelphia: Henry Altemus.
Wilkinson, Spenser. The Brain of the Navy. London: A. Constable & Co.
Wilson, V. Guide to the Yukon Gold Fields. Seattle, Wash.: Calvert Co. 75 cents.
Wolcott, Miss Julia A. Song-Blossoms. Boston: *Arena* Publishing Co. $1.25.

LICENSED TO UNZ.ORG
ELECTRONIC REPRODUCTION PROHIBITED